

# The Nation.

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## The Week.

THE WEEK has been quite featureless. No great events at home or abroad. The news from England is not without interest, but is wholly confined to the elections, of which the result is given by our correspondent. Mr. Gladstone has been defeated at Oxford.

A **VERY** important bureau has been established in the Adjutant-General's office at Washington, "for the collection," so runs the order, "safe keeping, and publication of rebel archives that have come into the possession of this Government." Dr. Francis Lieber is appointed chief, by a very happy selection. If we were a historian of the times, we should lay down our pen at once, and wait for developments which cannot fail to affect materially our judgment of the acts and leaders of the rebellion. Ford's Theatre has been pronounced on examination by Gen. Meigs to be nearly fire-proof, and will probably receive the precious documents of treason, the Secretary of War having acknowledged Mr. Ford's right to compensation, and rented the building till the 1st of February next, with the privilege of purchasing it for \$100,000, if Congress approve. It will be curious if the proof of official Confederate complicity in the assassination of Mr. Lincoln should emanate from the very spot on which the tragedy was enacted.

It seems that the withdrawal of the privileges of their ports by foreign powers from the Confederate cruisers is likely to be something more than a mere formality. The *Shenandoah* has been carrying havoc into the North Pacific, and has destroyed already some eight of our whalers. This is only the beginning of her havoc in that quarter. It is said by the vessel that brings this intelligence, along with the destitute crews, that the commander of the *Shenandoah* was informed of Lee's surrender and the overthrow of the rebellion, which he refused to credit. He was not disposed, however, to doubt Mr. Lincoln's assassination, "for he expected it." He had coaled last at Melbourne, and his crew of English and Irish sailors was swelled by some of the captured whalers.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL SPEED has rendered his opinion to the Secretary of the Treasury in regard to the cotton captured at Savannah, and, incidentally, to all other property which has been made the prize of war on land. Two acts of Congress, those of March 12, 1863, and July 2, 1864, regulate the disposal of "captured property," which the Attorney-General considers all movable property, "actually and hos-

tilely seized and taken on land," to be. In this category also would seem to be included, by the sixth section of the Act of 1863, all "cotton, sugar, rice, and tobacco" received by any United States officer or soldier within insurrectionary districts; which is directed to be turned over to an agent of the Treasury Department, and, by section second, sold, the proceeds being paid into the Treasury to await the action of the Court of Claims when duly invoked. There is no choice in the matter: the statute is imperative. Accordingly, the Savannah cotton, which was *de jure* captured property in Sherman's hands, and *de facto* when put under Treasury control, must be disposed of by sale for the benefit of the Treasury. Congress having vested the determination of the legality of its seizure, as well as of that of other captured property, in the Court of Claims, neither the President nor any executive officer would be authorized in appointing a special commission for this purpose.

THE standing grievance of this metropolis is dirt, as everybody knows. A complaint against scavengers is always in order. Sundry smaller cities, within ten days, have shown themselves more fortunate, inasmuch as certain disinterested parties, from abroad or in the midst of them, have kindly volunteered to "clean them out." Thus, on the 26th ult., several barge-loads of ruffians from Albany invaded the peaceful town of Hudson with the sanitary intention alluded to, accompanying, being supported by, and apparently forming a part of, the Emmett Guards, who were out on an excursion. If the damage to the town were to be measured by that inflicted on the liquor-shops, which were pretty thoroughly gutted as at Poughkeepsie on the day of the boat-race, there might be a delicate doubt betwixt loss and gain. But when it came to an indiscriminate attack upon the unoffending and helpless populace, with bludgeons and bullets, it was a very dirty broom, indeed, and fit only to be thrown into the river. There seems to have been great boldness in this St. Albany raid, and great feebleness on the part of the authorities of the two cities concerned. Prompt telegraphing ought to have rendered the arrest of the marauders a matter of certainty, albeit of difficulty. On the evening of the same day another "cleaning out" process took place in Concord, New Hampshire, in which, we are sorry to add, returned soldiers were the chief actors. The object of their assault was a clothing establishment, because of a charge of theft, assumed to be false, against one of their number. They were dispersed, without bloodshed apparently on either side, by the civil and military authorities.

THE Richmond *Whig* was permitted to resume publication on the 24th ult. It was thus enabled to exert what influence it could upon the impending municipal election by the following recommendation:

"In a word, it is the imperative duty of every man to take the prescribed oaths, and then to cast his vote to-morrow, with an eye single to the peace and happiness of the city and the general good of the State. To a notary public first, then, and pay the magnificent sum of five cents for the blessed privilege, and then take all the oaths with an almighty unction, and forthwith you will be made whole—a citizen without spot or blemish, and in whom there is no manner of guile. And then to the polls very early in the morning, and, our word for it, you will feel good all over for a long time."

It may be doubted if the people needed this approval of the doctrine of Mr. Reverdy Johnson, which has never yet elicited protest from the South. The election of the 25th, at all events, made Sturdivant mayor of the city by a majority of quite six hundred votes over Taylor, the self-styled Union candidate. The *Commercial Bulletin* says boldly enough:

"The election of yesterday simply means that the people of Virginia, so far at least as Richmond can be taken as a representative of

that people, turn not with the spirit of the craven and the renegade from opinions which their kith and kin have died for."

And all the *Republic* can reply is:

"Neither the city of Richmond nor the county of Henrico has ever represented the sentiment of Virginia in the elections. As they voted, so did *not* the State at large vote."

Gen. Terry is reported to have nullified the election.

THE event of the week which has the widest bearing upon the condition of the freedmen, is an order from the Secretary of War abolishing any system of passes adopted by post, district, or other commanders, which subjects the blacks to restraints or punishments not imposed on other classes. Neither they nor the whites will be hindered from seeking employment elsewhere than at home, if they cannot obtain it there (unless bound to stay by voluntary agreements), nor from traveling from place to place on legitimate business. Major-General Gregg had already, in the spirit of this order, been moved by certain outrages on the blacks at Lynchburg, Va., to extend his industrial regulations to the white population, who have now their choice between work on their own account and a turn at street-sweeping. Gen. Gregg is particular to assert that "the freedmen have precisely the same rights before the law as white men." Nevertheless, the civil courts in that portion of Virginia within the limits of the department of Washington have declined to receive colored testimony, and Major-General Augur has established a Provost Court, to have exclusive jurisdiction in all cases which affect the people of color, who will be allowed to bear witness on the same conditions as the whites. "This order will remain in force until the Virginia courts have brought their practice more into harmony with the existing state of affairs." The question is brought up again by a case in Mississippi, where a planter murdered a negro, and was taken into custody by Col. Thomas, Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau. A writ of habeas corpus was ineffectually served upon this officer, who telegraphed to Washington for instructions. As only the wife of the victim was a witness of the deed, the murderer could not be convicted in a civil court. It is to be hoped the Government will see the necessity of abrogating at a stroke the whole black code of the Southern States. Much of the old brutality is rampant in the lower counties of Maryland, where the officers of the law sustain it; in New Orleans, where the disloyal mayor and his police force let no opportunity slip of harassing colored citizens, the latest outrage being their expulsion from their churches, which were closed upon them; and generally in Missouri and Arkansas, wherever the military arm is shortened. In the last mentioned State, however, in the Little Rock district, the freedmen are prospering and earning good wages, some in the employ of the military authorities, others, of the citizens of the town itself. In Kentucky, Gen. Fisk, Freedmen's Commissioner, reports that the State is stirred to its depths on the slavery question, and the condition of the blacks is thoroughly unsettled. Gen. Palmer has proclaimed emancipation to all slaves who will leave the State, and the exodus is in full operation. Thousands of the colored population have crossed the Ohio for the sake of their freedom. Nor for this alone, since in many places the masters are exhibiting the worst passions of slavery, and equalling the keenest atrocities of other days, their vindictiveness being especially visited upon those families whose heads have enlisted in the armies of the Union. All parties whose safety is thus jeopardized, on making application to Gen. Palmer or his post commandants, are forwarded to Camp Nelson, where large numbers are constantly arriving.

THE question of the proper depository and judicious exercise of the pardoning power is undergoing investigation at the hands of a committee of the New York Prison Association, of which Dr. Lieber is chairman. They address by circular eight enquiries to former chief magistrates of the several States, asking whether the possession of this power by the Executive was esteemed desirable or burdensome—a part of his prerogative, or better entrusted elsewhere; whether this unlimited authority is necessary in our political system, or has even grown out of it; whether it can be employed with prudence and a due regard to the merits of the case when the governor is so liable to personal and party influences; whether justice is subserved or defeated by it;

whether juries, and not judges only, should be allowed to recommend for pardon and merciful consideration; whether a council or board of pardon would not be preferable to the present usage, and ought not to be incorporated in the State constitutions whenever altered. We anticipate a wholesome result from this research, and commend it as an example to all our social reformers.

MOST of the Southern States are politically active, and preparing for the conventions which are to frame anew their Constitutions. Gov. Johnson, of Georgia, made a very sensible speech at Macon, on the 15th ult., in which he told the people very plainly what was the shortest and the only way to rid themselves of a protracted military rule. This was to admit that slavery was dead, and to alter their statutes to suit this inevitable fact. He assented, for his part, to the validity of the laws of Congress and the proclamation of the President abolishing the institution, and showed that the State Convention would be required to adopt the same view. He refuted the charge that the negroes will not work, and complimented them for their conduct in the fundamental change of Southern society. "Under the peculiar circumstances by which they were surrounded, no people have ever behaved better than they have done." He depicted the advantages of liberty for the South and her future prosperity, attended by an infusion of new blood and enterprise from the North and from abroad. "We abused mankind," he confessed, "when they differed with us," and this intolerance of opposite opinions almost drove civilization from the land, and suppressed law and order with vigilance committees. He rejoiced that it was now safe and constitutional for everybody to express his mind on the subject of slavery.—Gov. Perry is said to have returned to South Carolina, after offering to co-operate with Gen. Howard in his plans for the freedmen. The *Raleigh Standard* and *Progress* are deprecating the withdrawal of the United States troops from North Carolina, and express sincere alarm at indications of a rebel reaction, threatening an overthrow of the civil establishment, and renewed abuse of freedmen and Unionists.—Gov. Bramlette, of Kentucky, is determined rigidly to enforce the State law which expatriates and disfranchises all citizens who have participated in the rebellion in a military or civil capacity, and the oath which affects all who have given voluntary aid and assistance to those in arms against the Government. By this means the August polls may be kept tolerably clear of the chivalry in grey.

THERE is a movement in the Chicago Board of Education to introduce the study of German into the grammar schools of that city. One of the daily press approves the experiment most heartily, and hopes that French will be included in it.

A VERY fine construction has been put by the rebel General Wise upon the terms of his parole, by which he was included in Lee's surrender. He received "permission to go to his home, and there remain undisturbed in every respect." He complains that he is disturbed "by a considerable number of freedmen and others," who have taken advantage of his absence to occupy his former domicile. He respectfully asks that these intruders be ousted, in order that he may enjoy the privileges guaranteed him by his parole. This coolest of cool applications is met by a refusal from Gen. Terry, who reminds him that he abandoned the home which he now claims for another, from which "he might to better advantage engage in rebellion and civil war." The fastidious ex-governor will next be charging the military authorities with perfidy, because he is disturbed at every turn by the sight of black men not one of whom is a slave, nor afraid to sing the John Brown song in his hearing.

THE college regatta at Worcester, on Friday and Saturday, as usual produced only two competitors, Yale and Harvard. The former was the winner in both races, though much doubt exists in regard to the time of the first day—whether it was seventeen minutes and forty-two and a half seconds to eighteen minutes and nine seconds, or whether one minute should be added to each. On the second day the time was nineteen minutes and five and a half seconds to nineteen minutes and twenty and a half seconds. Crew and boat seem to have been in favor of Yale.

GENERAL THOMAS has his hands full in Tennessee. Without him, Governor Brownlow rests upon the very unstable basis of a loyal white minority, who have not only turned their disloyal brethren out of doors, but have rejected the services of the blacks in keeping them out. As a consequence there is an undisguised conflict between the outs and ins, and the heaviest battalion would carry the day here as upon other fields, if the military power were not on the side of the weaker party. This it is which has arrested Mr. Emerson Etheridge, and held him in spite of the clutchings of civil processes; and which will secure the purity and legality of the approaching election as far as it is possible. A most interesting order has been published this week, in which General Thomas figures as the skilful photographer of certain citizens of Columbus, who had fallen under his just displeasure, and were treated to righteous discipline. Two instances of persecution, the one of colored people, the other of a Union man, showed clearly the unfitness of the magistrates implicated for further continuance in office. For taking plums from a tree on an unenclosed common, which happened to be private property, two colored school girls were committed to solitary confinement in the county jail for lack of the excessive bail of \$500. Here the mayor, one Andrews, appeared to be the instigator of the justice, Welch. But this was only one of a long series of attacks on the colored schools of the place, and the same Andrews, last year, had twenty-five lashes inflicted on a black man for teaching a class of his own complexion how to read. Then one Galloway, an active rebel, returns to find his premises occupied by a Unionist, on a lease from the Treasury Department, in the absence of whose agent he frightens the tenant away, sells the store to a third party, and sues for his lost rent. The agent comes back, and is obliged to resort to the military to recover possession. Justice Welch decides in favor of Galloway in the matter of the rent, being persuaded, perhaps, by the eloquence of his counsel, M. S. Frierson, "a malignant rebel," who had vowed not to trim his hair until the Confederacy should be established. This Absalom came to grief by forgetting that he was not yet out of the woods. He and Galloway—whom the General characterizes as bearing "the reputation of a man destitute of principle, honor, and loyalty," a former "note-shaver and negro-trader"—are turned over to the Provost-Marshal General for confinement in the military prison, until it can be determined what shall be done with those who still maintain a defiant attitude and ungrateful heart towards the Government of the United States. The mayor and the justice are suspended from the exercise of their civil functions, until they can make some show of being possessed of humanity and a willingness to obey the laws. Everybody will applaud the action of General Thomas, while regarding it as a fresh proof of the lamentable haste with which the South has been restored to political vitality.

A LARGE portion of the public, we are satisfied, have never understood why the exhibitions of the National Academy begin on the first of May and last till the fifth of July. We believe no better reason can be assigned for it than that the exhibitions of the Royal Academy in London open and close at the same period; and there could hardly be a worse one. The first of May is the beginning of the London season, and the London season, as well as the session of Parliament, is fixed by the habits of the aristocracy. The winter and early spring are spent in fox-hunting and in their country houses. They begin to come to the city in March or April, soon after the opening of Parliament, and by the first of May the tide of gaiety begins to rise rapidly, and continues to flow until the middle of August, when Parliament rises, and the grouse and the Continent become temptations too strong to be resisted. Moreover, during the summer months the heat is never so great as to make the streets and crowded rooms positively uncomfortable. A concert room, or ball room, or picture gallery is never unendurable in London in the month of June, as it is here.

Not one of these reasons, we need hardly say, is of any value here. The New York season begins after New Year's Day, and lasts till the beginning of Lent. January, February, and March are the months in which the greatest number of people are in town, in which social life is most active, in which there is the greatest eagerness for sight-seeing, and in which galleries, theatres, and concerts, and all other kinds of in-door enjoyments, are most in request. By the first of May, the day

which the Academy has selected for its opening, two-thirds of the class who love to see pictures are either tired out, or are about to change their houses, or go to the country. They have bought all the pictures they care to buy, and, in most cases, what with artists' receptions, club exhibitions, dealers' exhibitions, and auction sales, have seen all the pictures they care to see, and begin to babble of green fields. In June, if the weather is seasonably warm, the very thought of a gas-lighted room with a crowd in it becomes repulsive, and the fact is that delicate women and fastidious men will not go to such a place, or stay in it more than five minutes. The result is, that the exhibitions of the Academy secure, we venture to say, a third less patronage than they would receive if they opened three months earlier, and, partly owing to the departure of the artists for the country before they close, partly owing to the general weariness and satiety, the sales or commissions which result from them are very much fewer than it would be reasonable to expect. We hope this mistake will not be repeated another year.

Gov. ANDREW's suggestion about equalizing the ratio of the sexes in Massachusetts, by providing the surplus women with homes in the West, has taken root, it seems. The Hon. Mr. Mercer, of Washington Territory, having come east upon an errand of this nature, has been co-operating with the Governor. Already he had secured cheap transportation from Aspinwall to San Francisco, and thence to Puget Sound, for three hundred young women. How to get them from New York to Aspinwall was the next question. Government was applied to, on grounds of national utility, for one of its steamers. Good-will everywhere, but no resources. Secretary Stanton refers to General Meigs; General Meigs to Secretary Welles; he to General Howard, who doubts if he have the power. Suppose Mr. Mercer ask the President. The President thought himself powerless if his subordinates could do nothing; but he indorses the project, as a post-office clerk a letter—"Try Gen. Grant;" and Gen. Grant only requires the approval of Gen. Howard to give the necessary orders. So the difficulty was surmounted, and the *De Molay* sails from this port on the 20th of August.

THE Congregational churches of the West are gathering statistics of the number of soldiers furnished by them to the armies of the Union; what proportion of their adult male members remained at home; the number of those who perished; the ministers and sons of ministers who went out; the number of those who have returned, and their religious and moral condition at the present time.

"I ALWAYS travelled," says General Sherman, who is still a tourist, "with a copy of the census in my saddle-bags. I could tell how many inhabitants, how many cultivated acres, how many head of cattle and horses, how many bushels of grain, each county possessed at that time, and so, approximately, how many there would be now, and how long it would subsist my army." This was fighting the South with her own weapon, for she always manipulated the census to suit herself. Gen. Sherman's genius is as conspicuous in this as in greater incidents of his warfare.

MR. POTTER, American Consul-General for Canada, showed his fitness for a post that has in it something of a diplomatic character, by saying, in the city of Detroit, "in two years from the abrogation of the Reciprocity treaty, the people of Canada themselves will apply for admission to the United States." Possibly; but was it the part of prudence to proclaim the excellence of commercial coercion in so very public a manner, and before so many Canadians, members of the Convention? It may be the "inevitable destiny" of Canada to become a portion of the American Republic, but it is not preparing for a happy marriage when the lady is forced to give her hand without her heart in it; and how could we expect to command Canadian affection? That is to be won, not extorted. Hitherto our annexation work has proceeded on the system of mutual agreement. We have taken possession of no country of which the people were not satisfied to become of our number, leaving Indians aside. But if we should force the Canadians to change themselves into republicans and Americans, the addi-



tion of their country to ours would strengthen us much the same as England has been strengthened by her connection with Ireland. We should be weakened by the junction, not strengthened. The Canadians are so angry with Mr. Potter that they are laboring to have him removed from his office, by charging him with being engaged in an attempt to subvert the Government of Canada, and with endeavoring to promote the annexation of that country to the United States. We do not believe that the Consul-General has been engaged in any improper action like that attributed to him; and the very fact that he could talk so imprudently at Detroit goes far to show that he could not have been a conspirator in Montreal. It is a little strange, too, that his actions should not have been brought up against him until he had made himself offensive by his words.

A RECENT article on "Belligerent Rights," published in THE NATION, has excited a good deal of discussion in some Boston papers, and given rise to much studiously diffused misapprehension. It may save many critics some trouble if we say that the article in question was written by one of the contributors in our published list, a gentleman well qualified in every way to discuss questions of diplomacy, and to whose hands we confided them with the same confidence and same freedom from personal responsibility that we confide the trust of criticizing books and pictures to others. For it must not be forgotten that this question of the propriety on the part of European powers of granting or withholding belligerent rights from the rebels, is a question of law. Whether Mr. Bemis in his pamphlet has discussed it in the best manner or not, is a question of taste and expediency. The pamphlet was forwarded to this office, we presume by Mr. Bemis himself, for notice at our hands, and was by us entrusted to a contributor whom we conceived to be well fitted for the task of expressing an educated American opinion on its merits. That opinion was duly expressed, and in our belief the writer, by his position, culture, and attainments, was abundantly qualified to express it, and had a right to do so, even if it differed in some ways from our own, or from that of the general public. Mr. Bemis has rendered excellent service during the last two years by his discussions of questions of international law, but he will hardly himself pretend that he has attained such perfection that it is immoral or "unpatriotic" in one of his educated countrymen to differ with him or to take exception to his method. For ourselves we can freely say that there is hardly a point he has raised during the last two years in which we have not entirely agreed with him, but we confess, with all deference, that we have on various occasions wished that his work had been differently done. Nobody can have followed his controversy with "Historicus" without seeing that on more than one occasion the good cause he defended suffered through the want on his part of the rhetorical skill of his antagonist. The undue stress he laid on the *Cassius* case, for instance, ended rather unfortunately in enabling "Historicus" to snatch a cheap victory on a side, and really unimportant, issue.

AT last we are likely to reach a settlement of the controversy between Mr. E. N. Dickerson and the Navy Department. The scientific principle in dispute relates to cut-offs, or the economy of using steam under the highest rate of expansion. Most, if not all, of the double-enders in our service are built according to the ideas of Mr. Isherwood, of the Engineering Bureau. The *Algonquin* alone has been constructed on the principles of his persevering rival, who by a public appeal and challenge to the Navy Department has brought about a trial of the two systems. Mr. Dickerson asked for a race and gets a mere turning of paddle-wheels at a wharf, but if he is half as good as his word, the *Algonquin* will make more foam with less fuel than the *Winooska*.

If it be true that the Pope has excommunicated the Emperor of the Mexicans, that gentleman will have reason to complain of the sort of "backing" which he receives from Europe. This act of excommunication gives one a strange idea of the state of affairs in the Old World. Maximilian was made Mexican Emperor by Napoleon III., the very man who maintains the Pope at Rome. But for the assistance they receive from French soldiers, the Pope would have to leave Rome, and

the Austrian prince would not remain a week in Mexico, yet the Pope denounces Maximilian, which must be considered an act of defiance to the French Emperor. Then Austrian influence is great at Rome, and the Pope looks for, and gets, the support of the brother of Maximilian. It is a regular maze, and shows that the Frenchman cannot keep his team under control; and that Pope Pius IX. is disposed to keep the power of the Church at the highest standard. The end of this beginning cannot be very far off.

MR. ROEBUCK'S "defence about America" was lame enough at Sheffield. The United States had a broad and beautiful territory; it would be filled some day by the Anglo-Saxon race; it would govern the world. Such was the ground of his endeavor to "break up that powerful nation into communities that would be less powerful and better behaved." It is a very monstrous species of egoism, however disguised by pretence of patriotism, that assails a foreign and a friendly power for the simple reason that it gives promise of an overshadowing greatness. It were becoming to enquire whether this superiority would be adventitious or well-earned—the result of fraud, and violence, and tyranny, or of high political morality and an admirable form of government. Mr. Roebuck might then estimate the probable effect of a lifelong crusade upon the republic whose growth he so much dreads.

LOUIS BLANC deprecates, in a Continental journal, the outcry of the British press against the President's amnesty and its exceptions, and their false haste to denounce his policy as barbarous before it is known that a single head will fall, or any vengeance be visited upon those excluded from pardon. For himself he is not surprised that the United States choose to remain on their guard, and to exact a guaranty from the leading spirits of rebellion. Southern sympathizers on that side of the Atlantic have all along asserted that the embarrassments of the North would culminate in the hour of victory. It is worth while to take them at their word. To protest against the imprisonment and trial of Davis is to ask the victor to declare his own triumph iniquitous. To accuse, try, and convict him of high treason, is to be faithful to the first and most evident interest of the Republic; to announce that the true seat of government has always been at Washington; to affirm that what the people constituted through the federal compact was the Union.

"It is to declare before the entire world that the legitimacy of an insurrection depends upon its moral worth, upon its principle, and not upon the degree of force it displays. It is to deny that a contract may be violated whenever the violators are powerful and numerous; it is to deny that to give a rebellion a right to claim the immunities of war, it has only to bring about immense calamities and shed torrents of blood."

THE report of the British Commissioners of Emigration for 1864 shows that the drain upon the United Kingdom fell a little short of that of the preceding year, yet amounted to nearly 200,000 souls. Of these 130,165 came over to the United States. It is noteworthy that while 56,618 Englishmen left home to settle in foreign lands, 29,811 (or more than half) preferred this country, and eight came here where one was attracted to the North American colonies. In the four years of the war, not less than £1,636,844 were sent by the emigrants in America to their friends and relatives who had stayed behind. "This," says the *London Daily News*, "is the real British emigration fund; and while this spontaneous agency continues in operation, nothing but an immense improvement in the lot of the people at home can avert the movement."

IN order to compete with the English steam-service, the French Government has resolved upon a line from Brest to New York, which shall occupy less than ten days in the transit. One steamer, the *Europe*, has already made the voyage in nine days; seventeen hours. Four others will be employed for this purpose, leaving once a fortnight until business shall warrant greater frequency. An express train will take the passengers to Paris in twelve hours, it is hoped, though sixteen now are required. Freight will continue round by water to Havre.



Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION should be addressed to the Editor.

### WHAT DELAYS THE AMENDMENT.

THE Democratic press is very earnest and emphatic in repudiating the insinuation that the refusal of Delaware, Kentucky, and Maryland to ratify the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery indicates any love of the institution or anything more than an unusual tenderness for States rights. This theory would meet with a better reception if it were not true that during the whole course of the agitation which led to the war, the two things all but invariably went together. It was found with a frequency which, if it does not amount to positive proof, suggests the relation of cause and effect very strongly, that in whatever part of the Union there prevailed great fear of the encroachments of the central power, there prevailed also very strong opinions as to the "nigger's" unfitness for freedom and as to the divine origin of slavery. It was all but impossible to find a man either North or South who held Calhoun's doctrine of the relations of the States to the Union, who did not also hold his doctrines as to the proper relations of the negro to the white man; and, in fact, there was probably no incident of the old anti-slavery agitation more notorious than that "States Rights" had, in the Democratic party, completely lost the character of a bulwark of local liberty and been converted into protection for a particular form of social organization.

What induces Democrats in a free State like New Jersey to refuse at this time of day to concur in abolishing slavery, is probably a compound of the traditional hatred of the negro and traditional reverence for slave society. There is nothing so very preposterous either in the supposition that large numbers of them still believe, that by some hocus-pocus, when Congress meets, slaves will be either restored to their owners or owners allowed to take them back. This belief, as we know, lingers among the less intelligent of the Southern planters, and will probably linger for a good while. There has been nothing in the war harder for the old pro-slavery zealots to swallow than the conclusion that changes effected by the "war power" could either have or acquire any legal validity after the war was over.

The excuse that New Jersey and the other recalcitrants refuse to ratify the amendment on the ground that its object can be better attained by the separate action of the States themselves, has been often answered, and yet it is reproduced still with the old effrontery. It is true the slaves might be freed by the one process as well as by the other; but the latter offers a guarantee for their remaining free which the other does not. A State which abolishes slavery on its own mere motion might restore it; a State which abolishes it under a provision of the United States Constitution becomes bound by "the supreme law of the land;" enters, in short, into a contract with every other State to do nothing of the kind. Nor is there anything extravagant in the supposition that such a thing might be attempted as the wholesale reduction to bondage of men who had once been free. Such a thing was done in the French colonies, and with no compunction. The French National Assembly liberated the colonial slaves, and Napoleon re-enslaved them. The enslavement of free negroes has long been one of the commonest incidents of Southern jurisprudence; and we have no reason to believe that the negroes in any Southern State would, for some time at least, be strong enough, well enough organized, or sufficiently rid of the sentiment of white superiority, to defend their rights successfully, and all interference by the general Government on their behalf would be revolutionary. To be sure, the thing would shock the conscience of the civilized world, but the South is not remarkably sensitive to foreign opinion, and not easily abashed by finding that she does not come up to foreign standards of morality. She is used to that sort of thing, is used to opprobrium of every variety, and has for years waxed fat and kicked under it.

There is in fact, and always was, the same objection to imposing on every State the obligation to maintain a republican form of government that there is now to exacting from each a pledge not to permit

slavery. The separate States might have taken such preventives as might be necessary against the establishment of monarchy themselves, without the interference of the general Government. It might be said that the establishment of monarchy in one would endanger the peace and security of the others, and certainly endanger the existence of the Union, and these were doubtless the reasons which led the framers of the Constitution to prohibit it. But the very same thing may be said of slavery. There probably has been no mistake in history greater than that committed by those who at the foundation of the government concluded that free and slave communities could exist peaceably and harmoniously in the same political organization; and certainly it has been grievously atoned for. There can be no duty stronger, therefore, than that of incorporating in the organic law a provision which shall for ever prevent the growth of such differences in the social organization of the two sections as have led to the recent catastrophe. At all events, New Jersey can hardly suffer by agreeing to what the slave States themselves, or the majority of them, agree to. The political force of the doctrine of State rights would not be in the least affected by the passage of the proposed amendment. It was already settled by the Constitution that if two-thirds of the States agree to any change in the law, they can impose it on the other third, so that the exercise of this power even cannot be objected to by the most rigid conservative, as long as it does not involve an invasion of private rights. With anybody who calls the right of slaveholding a private right, with which those armed with discretion in the matter ought to refrain from interfering, there is of course little use in arguing. But any Democrat who does so can hardly wish us to acquit him, as the *World* does, for a liking for the institution itself, and put it all down to reverence for State sovereignty.

### THE REBEL PAROLE.

It is said the Government has ordered a *nol. pros.* to be entered in those cases in which indictments have been found against General Lee, and that it is not its intention to proceed against him for treason. We believe that there is little doubt entertained in any quarter as to what the rights of the Government in this matter are. No answer worthy of attention has yet been made to Dr. Lieber's propositions that any cartel or military agreement remains military in its character, and the general to whom an army surrenders cannot go, or be considered to go, in what he grants, beyond his own military power; that he cannot, as a military commander, determine anything regarding the rights, or forfeiture of rights, in a civil point of view, of those who surrender; that so soon as a rebellion is at an end, the power of parole ceases with it, and the paroled person becomes again simply a citizen or subject, with undiminished responsibility to the law of the land; that no immunity results from a military convention beyond the stipulated military points; that prisoners of war remain always responsible for heinous crimes committed before their capture, even in regular war; that all that which, in a rebellion, a formal or stipulated surrender implies, and can imply in good faith, is that the act of appearing in arms against the other party shall not be visited as a crime, so far as the articles of surrender themselves go, and so long as they in their nature can last; and that those who rebelliously have taken up arms, cannot enjoy greater immunities than the civilians who have joined the rebellion.

In so far as any doubt can arise as to the application of these rules to the case of Lee and his army, it was due to Grant's stipulation that they should not be molested as long as they obeyed the laws in force at their place of residence. But it is now clear that the convention between him and Grant was unfortunately and unskillfully worded. We understand that Grant, with his usual modesty, acknowledges this to be the case, and explains it by the fact that he wrote hurriedly and alone. He ought to have stipulated for unconditional surrender. There is no doubt he might have done so. What was still more unfortunate was, that after this convention such haste should have been made in concluding similar ones with the other rebel commanders, so that at last the parole has been made to cover with immunity such persons as Forrest and Semmes; the one guilty of the butchery of Fort Pillow, the other of decoying prizes at sea by burning others in the night—an offence which either does or ought to place him in the category of enemies of the human race.

The ground on which Lee will be allowed to pass harmless doubtless is, that whatever the law be, both Grant and Lee considered the convention in the nature of an amnesty, and that the former surrendered under the impression that, having once done so, he had nothing further to fear, and that the Government, therefore, is unwilling to take advantage of the misconception, more for the sake, however, of its own reputation, than from any other consideration. But if it be really desired to be rid of these men, it is hard to see what objection there could be, either legal or moral, to declaring the stipulation at an end, and giving them thirty or forty days, and free passes, to get out of the way.

### CLASS RULE.

It is a favorite stock argument with the European opponents of progress—and probably not a few who would be unjustly stigmatized as opponents of progress have been seduced by it—that democracy is a very fine thing *in theory*; that it would be the best possible polity if a whole community could be inspired with the requisite intelligence and wisdom; but that it is not adapted to the imperfect condition of our nature, and, until that nature can be changed, must result in an inferior sort of government.

In repelling this charge, we think that the friends of democracy have not always taken the wisest, perhaps not even in reality the boldest, course. They have denied the premises, while virtually almost admitting the conclusion, by asserting that democracy did necessarily, by its own operation, produce a certain preternatural amount of intelligence and knowledge in the whole community, enabling it to comply with the high theoretical demands of the constitutional polity. Now, that democracy does *tend* in this direction we firmly believe; but the weak point of the case is that, until this mission be fairly worked out, the basis of fact will always be shaky and liable to afford the enemy a triumph.

Our manner of defence would be to reverse the old Tory or obstructive argument. We admit that in theory an aristocratic government is better than a democracy, but maintain that the infirmities inseparable from human nature make it much inferior in practice.

The folly of the multitude, as contrasted with the wisdom of the few, has always been a favorite topic with both real and pseudo philosophers, nor can we say that it is altogether a flattering self-delusion on their part. To say that "the majority are fools" is a great deal more uncivil than untrue. The quack who, according to the well known story, explained his success on this principle, was only the type of a multitude of charlatans, private and public, in all ages and all countries.

Why not then entrust the government of a country to its aristocracy, in the original sense of the term, its best men, born and educated for the task, and removed by their education from the influence of the numerous errors which beset and pervade the masses? To be sure, mere closet philosophers, from Plato downward, have usually made a frightful mess of it whenever they abandoned their sphere of contemplative criticism and tried their hand at legislation; but this is because they are *closet* philosophers. A real working aristocracy, composed of men of the world and first-class professional men as well as scholars—why is it not the very model of a governing body?

Because, in thus presenting the case, a most important practical element has been omitted. Intellect and culture are not all that is required. If we could adopt the Greek definition of the all-sufficient wisdom as the product of natural cleverness and acquired knowledge; if we incorporated with this the doctrine of the Platonic Protagoras, that virtue is one of the teachable sciences, then we might assent to the government of the few as a matter of course. If we agree with Tacitus that all historical events are the result of deliberate calculation and plan, we might prefer to have our history made for us by a select minority. Or if, to come down to our day, we accepted without reserve Buckle's dogma; if we believed that intellectual causes were the only civilizing agents, we might admit that the superiority of cultivated intellect afforded the best chance for good government. But the whole course of human experience teaches us that the most accomplished gentlemen, the most learned specialists, the wisest statesmen, are not free from human infirmity. Your *charientes* and *calo-*

*agathes* (to borrow the fashionable slang of Athens) may be very superior men, but they are only men after all; and when they have things altogether their own way, they will be tempted to act for their own special benefit at the expense of society. Let the members of one class monopolize the power of government, and they will be pretty certain to ill-use the other classes, either positively by oppressing them, or at least negatively by not looking properly after their interests. Various passions and prejudices operate as strongly to bias men's minds from truth and justice as sheer ignorance does. The late financial crudities of some of our legislators may well move the pity of the political economist, but what shall we say to the corn-laws so long and strenuously maintained by the collective wisdom of England?

In short, the only way in which every class can be secured in the enjoyment of its liberty, is for every class to have its share in the government.

If it be objected that this principle would require the extension of the suffrage to women and minors, we reply, first, that women or children do not constitute a distinct class of society: their interests are combined with and distributed among those of all classes; secondly, that they have a strong natural protection in the love of their husbands and parents; thirdly, that, notwithstanding this natural protection, they are not always free from oppression even in the most civilized countries, and their proper treatment now presents some of the most difficult social and legislative problems.

A democratic government, the government of the people, the whole people, as opposed to that of any class, is really the most practical and the most practicable, because, by representing every class, it affords the strongest safeguard against that abuse of power to which human nature is liable. And this conclusion has immediate application to the question of negro suffrage at the South—a question which is assuming grave proportions. The arguments against giving the blacks a franchise are plausible enough by themselves in theory, but leave the main matter of fact untouched. That the negroes are too ignorant, or too likely to be influenced by their late masters on the one hand, or by demagogues on the other; that they will not vote as we may wish them, or as they ought to—admitting all this, none of the objectors have shown by what means these new citizens can be protected in their "life, liberty, and pursuit of happiness," unless they have a share of political power. True, there is a way. It might be done by perpetual interference of the Federal authority, by prolonging military rule, by making an abnormal and temporary condition of things permanent. But this would be *de-construction*, not *reconstruction*; it would be adjourning all government indefinitely.

Democracy and universal suffrage are popularly supposed to be all but synonymous, because they are found together here. In reality there is no necessary connection between them. A democracy much more radical than our own coexisted with a very limited suffrage in the case of the ancient Athenians; universal suffrage coexists with a pure autocracy in the case of the French at this day. Our older States generally began with some qualification; most of them have done away with it, but it does not follow that we are bound to carry out the principle on all new occasions, nay, that we may not recede from it in old localities, if circumstances shall render the movement necessary. All we say is, if we are thus compelled to take the back track, let our change of base be conducted in an equitable and consistent manner. Let exclusion be founded on ignorance, not on color; let us not, under the plea of self-preservation, perpetuate that spirit of caste which so nearly proved our destruction.

## Correspondence.

### THE TARIFF.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

It is well known that a Commission is now in session in New York, engaged in the revision of the tax and tariff systems of the country. The members of the Commission will without doubt adopt the policy "to hear all and say nothing;" but as I have great confidence that all honest discussion among the people results in a concentration of opinion in favor of such

legislation as in the long run proves to have been as nearly right as the circumstances of the time would permit, it seems to me that the principles on which tax and tariff bills should be founded should now be under discussion among the people, in order that the report of the Commission may be intelligently considered, and either accepted and embodied in well considered laws, or rejected because not in harmony with well digested public opinion.

Such discussion is the more desirable at the present time, because it is quite evident that a great change is taking place in the relative opinions of the East and the West upon the subject of free trade and protection.

It is currently believed in the West that the people of New England are almost a unit in favor of what has been called by politicians "the American system of protection to home industry;" but if Western men could by correspondence or other methods get at the real opinions of New England men, especially of the manufacturers, they would find that very few of them would advocate protection as a system upon which laws should be framed *ab initio*. It would be said by intelligent manufacturers: We should not now advocate the principle or policy of fostering manufactures by protective duties, but we by no means intend to say that in that admission we also intend to advocate the repeal of all the protective laws now in existence. Our manufactures have got established partly by means of a protective system, and such being the fact, they are in a different relation to each other and to the people from that which they would have held had there been no protection, and therefore any sudden change would be disastrous. We claim that because we have had protection in the past, the change to a system of free trade must be gradual. The most ardent free trader should advocate such a gradual change, in order that the disaster which would follow an abrupt one might not create a reaction in favor of high protection.

It is probable that the very great increase of woollen machinery caused by the excessive war demand, and the excessive protection involved in very high rates of exchange, may furnish sound reasons for protecting that interest until the increase of population shall have equalled the increase of machinery, and in this the Western wool-grower has as much interest as the Eastern spinner; but in the very fact is involved an argument against a permanent system of high protection, in that the excessive protection of high rates of exchange having over-stimulated production, a temporary treatment is called for which a healthy body politic would not require.

Yet many of those who would make this claim would entirely agree with the writer that the active, intelligent, handy people of New England would number as many, be as well employed and as well paid as they are now, had there never been a protective duty imposed since the foundation of the country. Their industry would doubtless be exerted in different channels, but it would be an insult to suppose that New England men could ever have been reduced to poverty or idleness by a system which left their native shrewdness absolutely free in its intercourse with all other men.

On the other hand, it has been generally supposed by New England men that the West is a unit in favor of absolute free trade, and it is somewhat amusing to a looker-on to observe the suspicion with which the advocacy of a protective system by Western men is being viewed. It is becoming known in New England that, partly because the time has actually come when a part of the labor of the West ought to be turned from farming to manufacturing, and partly because of the excessive protection involved in the high rates of exchange during the war, certain iron works, machine shops, woollen mills, nail factories, etc., etc., have become well established in the West, and that Western farmers, having paid off the debts which they incurred in improving so much land that they brought corn down to ten cents a bushel, have now a surplus capital, and are beginning to think that they had better diversify their industry, and are actually asking to be protected at the outset in order that they may safely embark in manufacturing upon a large scale.

It may here be noticed that quite as sound an argument could now be made in favor of protecting Western manufactures against New England as was formerly made for protecting American manufactures against Old England; but it is not upon this ground that the Eastern man now views with distrust the spread of protective ideas in the West. One New England man says, "By means of protection"—another says, "In spite of protection—we have at length established all our various manufactures upon a firm basis. We have capital, industry, and skill, and by means of these we can maintain our supremacy against any free competition. But if the protective system is adopted, so that for a time unskilful beginners in the West can gain an apparent success in competition with us, we shall have only fluctuation, with possible great fortune to the few, but ultimate disaster to the many, both East and West."

This growing conviction of New England in favor of moderate tariffs and a gradual tendency to free trade does not yet find public advocates to any extent. If an officer of a large corporation were to avow these views, it might still cost him his office; yet nine-tenths of the stockholders would probably agree with him in private.

It needs but little more growth, however, of protective ideas in the West to cause the East to cry free trade; and yet the two sections are practically very near. The New England manufacturer, still calling himself a protectionist, desires to be relieved, as far as may be, from what he has found to be the trammels of high protection, by the establishment of such a moderate tariff as will yield to the country the largest revenue; and the Western man, yielding his old views of absolute free trade, but still calling himself a free trader, desires the establishment of precisely the same tariff, for the sake of the moderate protection incidentally arising from a well devised revenue system of duties.

It is one of the compensations for the war that men have been brought together in our armies from the most remote sections, and have learned to respect each other, and to lay aside petty sectional jealousies; and even in conflict with Southern rebels, new ideas of the character of Northern and Southern men have been gained by each respectively; and it is not to be doubted that from the turmoil of civil war will be developed a homogeneous nation, where before existed only an aggregation of States.

Both from the visit of the Western Boards of Trade to Boston, and from the great gathering of business men at Detroit, and from other similar meetings which we hope may follow, there cannot fail to result a similar removal of misconceptions and a harmonizing of ideas upon the great practical questions of finance and trade, on which the East and the West and also the South are in fact more in harmony than the misuse of terms has yet allowed them to discover; in fact, these terms, "protection and free trade," which used to represent fundamentally different ideas, have come to be mere catch-words, used by politicians to keep sections divided on which the mass of the people are practically agreed. The East and the West were never so near in fact and in theory as they are now; and although the debates in Trade Conventions may seem to indicate great diversity, yet the private meeting and intercourse of the members will bring unanimity. The talking members may appear to be wide apart, the great mass of silent members will find themselves united.

It is to be hoped that the Commission now in session upon the tax and tariff may be able to report in favor of the English, or, as it has been called, the concrete system of raising revenue; that is, to secure the larger part of the necessary revenue from a few imposts which shall not interfere with the industry of the country, such as upon whiskey, tobacco, tea, coffee, and stamp duties.

If such a system can be made practicable in this country, the necessary but complicated and dangerous legislation required to adjust the tax and the tariff bills to each other may be mainly avoided, and the tariff may be permanently regulated by itself. If it shall be found that the different sections of the country are now practically agreed upon what they want, and are only separated by a misuse or different use of terms, then the legislation of the next session of Congress will be much simplified, and the laws which it shall pass will stand unchanged for a much longer period.

On the other hand, if the Commission shall not be able to report in favor of the concrete system of revenue, and it shall continue to be necessary to impose heavy taxes upon the industry of the country, there will be still greater need of harmonizing the opinions of different sections.

In such case, the internal revenue bill should first be substantially agreed upon, and the excise taxes on manufactures and home productions settled; the tariff bill should then be taken up in two divisions.

1st. A schedule of duties on imports should be made upon such articles as are subject to an excise tax in the internal revenue bill, exactly adjusted to the rate of such excise tax; these duties should be specific and should never be changed, except as the internal taxes may be changed. Coupled with this schedule should be provisions entitling exporters of domestic commodities to a drawback equal to the internal revenue tax. By this division of the tariff bill, the domestic manufacturer or producer will be put exactly on a par with the foreign manufacturer or producer, both at home and abroad.

2d. The home manufacturer having been protected by the foregoing schedule against any discrimination against him, the second schedule of duties may be adjusted upon the principle of moderate revenue, or upon any other basis, the same as if there were no internal revenue tax or first schedule of duties.

If the endeavor should be made to adjust these distinct points in the tariff



In a single schedule, there will be great danger of an unequal adjustment and of constant attempts to change, until the tax and tariff bills will become even more difficult to interpret than the existing laws, if such a thing be possible.

A NEW ENGLAND MANUFACTURER.

### EMIGRATION TO THE SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

On this subject, which we hear so much of, there is one most important thing quite overlooked, viz., that the movement, if it ever takes place, will bring the Anglo-Saxon and the kindred races of Northern Europe into circumstances entirely new. There is no case in history of their being found in the tropics or semi-tropics under these two conditions: 1st, Without slavery; 2d, In sufficient numbers to develop their own institutions. In such climates we can find great numbers of them with slavery, and a few without; but nowhere the two conditions.

In Southern Brazil there is a colony of Germans, some sixty thousand, doing well; they are industrious and healthy, and growing rich; but they live under a Portuguese government. In Texas there are thirty or forty thousand Germans; but they have always been subject to the slaveholders of that State. In New Guinea there is a considerable colony of Hollanders; here the first condition is wanting; Holland has always burdened her colonies with restrictions so oppressive as to amount to an enslaving of the whole population. In the British East and West Indies, and at the Cape of Good Hope, we find a few Englishmen and Scotchmen controlling large populations of other races; but this does not answer the second condition. There are also in South Africa two independent republics of Dutch Boers; but they also fall short of the second condition, because they are so very sparsely settled. Look where we will, we cannot find the two conditions together.

The question is, Can our race settle in warm climates and retain its great qualities? Does the vigor and does the perpetuity of these qualities depend on snow and ice? The common, the almost universal, answer is, yes. I venture to say no. Has the reader ever considered the fact that there has never been an opportunity to try the experiment? The whole of South America, of Central America, and Mexico was settled by Spanish hidalgos or petty nobles, too proud to work. Our Southern States were settled by the cavaliers and convicts of King James and King Charles, also ashamed to work; slaves were brought to them soon after, so that all the warm regions on this continent were occupied by labor-hating colonists. Not a case has ever occurred among them of the higher classes setting an example of labor with their own hands or holding labor in honor; not a single community (a few individuals excepted) where those classes generally have not regarded idleness, high living, and sensual indulgence as the chief good of life. Hence the inference that a warm climate must always produce these fruits. The tendency of the unthinking mass of mankind is to believe that any two things which they have always seen conjoined belong together by necessity.

Are we really shut up to the conclusion that those charming regions must be for ever given up to lounging and licentiousness? Does the Christian reader seriously believe that our heaven-descended religion cannot produce a change? Can the Anglo-Saxon race do all manner of wonderful things except this—to bring about a happy union between a fair climate and good morals? I maintain not only that this can be done, but even that a civilization can be created superior to anything now known in our country, and in no very long time. A principal obstacle to intellectual improvement in the best parts in the North where good morals prevail is this, that the severe climate consumes the time of the people both in summer to provide for winter, and in winter to keep themselves warm; the whole year is occupied in a contest to preserve life. Only a few professional men can find time to study, and even they only in a few intervals of professional labor. But let a colony settle in a climate where five or six hours of work would produce what twelve do here, and you presently begin to achieve a general intelligence which no country has yet seen, provided you have a sufficient number of *picked* families, and they unite to realize the idea. A few years must be spent in "roughing it;" but when their lands are fenced and subdued, and their houses built, more leisure follows. It would be just as easy to realize this idea as the Puritan idea of New England, or the "blissful ignorance" idea of the French Catholics of Lower Canada, or any other. And surely there would be no lack of attractiveness in the object proposed: To create that unheard-of thing, good morals in a mild climate, and to redeem the largest and fairest parts of God's earth from the reproach of all ages. Such a colony must have a Columbus sort of feeling, which would richly repay them for their enterprise. Nor would their children in the main disappoint them.

For some time my mind had been running on such thoughts, when I fell in with a small volume lately published in New York City, entitled "In the Tropics." The writer had been a clerk in the crowded misery of the city, when he went to Hayti and commenced cultivating a few cheap acres of land with his own hands and American implements. The book is a record of his first year's experiments and results; his luscious vegetables, piles of potatoes for sale, and good food; his orange avenue, mango avenue, coconut avenue, and so on. It is a book of wonderful interest. One remark he makes is this: "Under the warm sun of the tropics, white working men and their machinery will yet open the grandest field for civilization ever seen." He speaks of a crop of some sort every month; of being liberated from the slavery of providing for winter; and of being enabled to spend several hours of the warm part of the day in reading, or, if he chose, in light work in the shade.

The objection will no doubt be made by some that they could never endure the dreadful heat. This is a vulgar error, as I know by a dozen years' residence in different parts of the tropics. There is no such dreadful heat. The deception arises from the discomfort of coming into our hot Northern weather suddenly from our cold spring months. Scarcely any are so much annoyed by the heat of August or September as by that of June. Where the heat continues the year round, it ceases to be felt. Take away the vices, the ignorance, and foolish exposures of warm climates, and the average of life would be longer. N.

### THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

III.

RICHMOND, July 17, 1865.

SINCE Richmond was evacuated, more than half of its inhabitants have been compelled to seek a part or all of their sustenance at the hands of charity. And this relief is received not only by those classes of the population that always were poor, but, in many instances, by families that a few weeks ago were affluent. On the first of March last the head of the family may have owned a great warehouse filled with goods, containing perhaps many hundred hogsheds of the highest priced tobacco, the gradual accumulation of the last two or three years. Tobacco of the cheaper kinds soon becomes spoiled if kept for a long time in the original packages. But the warehouse with all its stores perished in the great conflagration, business is at a standstill, and the merchant finds himself upon the world absolutely a beggar without bread. He lives, perhaps, in a fine house; but nobody will buy it, nobody will take a mortgage upon it, until it can be known whether or not the owner's treason is to be pardoned, and his property left at his own disposal.

So great and wide-spread is the destitution that the military authorities have divided the city into districts, and soldiers detailed for the purpose go about from house to house, finding out whoever may be in need of aid, and giving them orders on the commissariat for stores. Besides the provisions thus distributed by the Government, the American Union Commission is engaged in ministering to the necessities of the people. One of the very few national flags to be seen in Richmond waves over the tent of its agency in the Capitol Square. There, since a week after the evacuation, tickets have every day been issued, which secured to their holders a dinner of soup from the Commission's soup-house, or flour—of which several hundred barrels have been distributed—or meal and rice. Sometimes as many as fifteen hundred soup tickets have been given away in a day. The charities of the Government are of course upon a much more extended scale. In addition to its labors in relieving these more immediate wants, the Commission has furnished garden seeds, and farming utensils of various kinds, to such cultivators of land as could bring satisfactory evidence of honesty and poverty. Certificates of loyalty are not required. No public announcement of this latter distribution was made, and the persons benefited since the first of this month, at which time it commenced, are not more than twenty in number, and are, for the most part, residents of Henrico County. From the account books of the Commission I am allowed to copy two or three returns, which are of interest as showing the unfortunate condition in which the ravages of war have placed very many farmers in the tide-water section of Virginia:

"Mrs. N. N. owns a hundred and twenty acres of land, of which there are thirty under cultivation; she has one horse and a small cart, but no farming implements, nor money to get them; her house is occupied by Federal troops.

"G. M. has a wife and nine children; owns and cultivates six acres of land; has now a borrowed horse and plough, and no farming implements of his own.

"W. C. owns a hundred acres, and cultivates forty-five; borrows a horse; all the implements on his place destroyed by General Butler's army; and he has nothing left but his farm.

"Mrs. M. C. owns a hundred and fifty acres of land, has twenty-five acres under cultivation; hires a horse and cart from negroes; has no implements left that can be used; has not a dollar."

No one not quite destitute of means was allowed to procure seeds or tools; but people in the condition set forth by the extracts given above received spades, shovels, rakes, hoes, and ploughs. In one or two instances a bill was taken with the articles, and the recipient hoped soon to pay for them, but most of the parties were content to take them as a gift. Now that the new crop is coming in, the Commission proposes, I believe, to suspend operations for a time, and not recommence its labor until the fall, when the inclement season will make more imperative demands upon its resources, and for clothing and fuel as well as for food.

So much has been said of late about the lofty hopes which the emancipated slave entertains in reference to his future, of the insolence of his demeanor, of the certainty that in his hands freedom will become license, that I have looked with care to find indications of these things. So far as concerns the negro's manners, it seems to me that he has by no means removed all traces of his former servility of demeanor. My observation has, of course, been confined within narrow limits of time and space, but as far as I have seen, in the hotels, at barber shops, in public conveyances, in the streets, the colored people appear good-natured, well behaved, and certainly far more respectful and deferential than one ever expects to find white Americans. At Norfolk and Portsmouth, towns where, a short time previous to my visit and a short time after, whites and blacks were engaged in savage party fights, I met some negroes who might be classed as exceptions to this general description; but even in those towns, though there was little visible good humor, there was no insolence. How long the deportment of the blacks will retain the characteristic marks of their servitude, and how long a time will elapse before white people cease to be more angry at a negro's impudence than at a white man's, are questions only to be decided by future experience.

The colored people, at the instance of negroes resident in Alexandria, will shortly hold a convention at that city, and take into consideration the prospects of their race in Virginia. The public generally will then be informed as to the nature of their demands, and in my opinion these will not be so extravagant as many people now suppose and declare.

Not long since I availed myself of a favorable opportunity to converse with two Richmond negroes who had been members of the delegation that recently visited President Johnson, and who expected to be in the Alexandria Convention. Both were mulattoes. One had long been free; the other was a slave up to the evacuation of the city. They were men of respectable appearance and of intelligence, speaking with propriety, and evidently not unaccustomed to reflection.

They thought a good many of their people in the more remote and secluded parts of Virginia were hardly aware as yet that they were free. But the great majority not only had a knowledge of the fact, but also knew pretty well in what respects their present differed from their former situation. They all knew they were their own men, and had got themselves to work for. There was great need for some law to regulate the price of labor, so that the people might be able to stay at their own homes and yet not be forced to take less wages than they ought to receive. They thought the relations between capital and labor could not safely be left to natural laws at present, and that they would not be at any rate. Legislation, if not used in behalf of the colored laborer, would be used against him. While the better class of planters would use the people fairly and well, there were many to whose good-will the negro could not trust, and these would join with the worst classes of voters to oppress him. It was not the slaveholders that were most to be feared; it was the rabble—the same people that were beating the negroes at Norfolk. Both took it for granted that the colored population was to form a class of hired laborers. Very few of them would be able to buy land now, and they had no expectation that land would be given them.

I asked them what they thought of the immediate enfranchisement of the negro. One of the two men was in favor of it, and urged all the ordinary arguments in support of it. Unless his people obtained a share of political power, they would have no protection against rapacity and oppression. They would always be kept in poverty and ignorance. They would become a class most dangerous to the peace of society. Nor should rebels be allowed to make laws for Union men. His friend did not think the negroes in Virginia were fit to exercise the right of suffrage immediately, nor that they would be for some years. Most of them knew nothing about the country. Vir-

ginian politics had done nothing but get worse and worse ever since the State, some fifteen or twenty years ago, adopted a more democratic constitution, and let every man cast a vote who was able to bear arms. The gentlemen couldn't get anywhere near the polls on election day, and the men who knew nothing and were worth nothing had everything their own way. The other replied that, unless such men had the right of voting, they never would know anything or be worth anything, and that, at any rate, they had taxes to pay. It would be the same, he said, with the negroes. The convention, both thought, would go no further than to ask that, if ignorant white men were allowed to vote, ignorant black men should have the same privilege. On that point the two men were at one, but they differed still as to the question whether all men, without distinction of color, should have the right of suffrage, or only the intelligent men of both races. They agreed, too, that there was very faint hope of the convention's being able to effect anything in reference to that matter, whatever good might flow from its efforts to obtain a system of laws regulating the price of labor.

Unlike the negro population with which I have been best acquainted, these men, as well as others of their race whom I have met in Virginia, seem to look for an improvement in their condition more to their own exertions and to local action, and less to the general Government and the people of the North. They are decidedly more intelligent than the negroes of Southern Georgia and South Carolina, and evince their superiority by their language, dress, and alertness of demeanor.

As one sits in the hotel parlor or in the cool piazza after tea, it is probable that the group surrounding him consists of men from all parts of the South. Military titles are frequent, and the majority have on, if not a full suit, at least some article of clothing made of Confederate gray cloth, or of butternut brown. Few are without a pipe and a tobacco pouch. Among themselves they are very frank in manners and speech, nor do I observe that a Northerner is treated with particular coldness. The old gentleman from Columbia whose property has all been destroyed, and who is on his way North to make a composition with creditors whom he will never be able to pay in full; the man from Louisiana who thinks he has as good a right to live in this country as any other man, who is going to stay and live easy if they leave him his property, and stay and take it rough-and-tumble if they don't; the gentleman who was born and raised in East Tennessee, and who has left his native State because he considers it unsafe for any man that has been a Southern sympathizer to try and live there, and who is now looking for a place to locate; the young man from North Carolina who deserted from Lee's army after Gettysburg and worked as a farm-laborer in Maryland—all furnish a share of the smoke and the talk. The last named person, however, does not, like the rest, confide his past history to the company in general. He tells it to me, knowing that I am from the North, and adds that he reckons "they'll be pretty hard on a man round here if they knew he didn't go plum through to the surrender. Down in Moore Co. he has two brothers that were just as strong for the war as any two fellows could be. He don't know what they'll say to him. He reckons they stuck it out. He'd like to get a good mule and carry on with him when he goes."

The conversation relates to the crops, the condition of the negroes, the behavior of the Yankees in each man's neighborhood, the probable action of the Federal Government, Southern prospects in business and politics, the state of public opinion in the North, all mingled with stories of the war—perhaps an anecdote of "Prince" John Magruder, an adventure with bush-whackers, a description of the wholesale destruction caused by Sherman's march, or of midnight robbery of a rebel family in Tennessee.

A remark made by the Tennessean attracts the attention of his neighbor, who says: "Ah, doctor, have you been North recently?" "Yes, sir, I had to leave my home in Tennessee. My wife is a New England woman, and I've been staying with her folks. In fact, I hadn't any other place to stay at, and was very thankful to stay there."

"Oh, we're all poor together, sir; and no Southern man need be ashamed to confess it. How did you find the people up there?"

"Well, of course, they think they were right, and they're mighty well pleased to think that we're subjugated, but everybody was kind and pleasant. The business men were all glad to see Southern men coming back. You see they never liked the Western men so well as us. Westerners would often buy when they meant to fail and smash up, but we Southerners never had the name of doing that, and they like to see us again."

Here the gentlemen from South Carolina interrupts. He is a short, small man, quite sixty years old, slow of speech but emphatic, and with a careworn expression of face.

"Were you owing much, sir, at the North?"

"Well, yes, sir; I owed near forty thousand dollars when the war broke out."

"What did they do with you? I am expecting in a few days to meet creditors of my own, and I would like to know how they feel up there."

"They'll treat you well. Very likely you'll find that your creditors are not the men that you think. Some of my paper had passed into second and third hands. The original holders had failed, been smashed up by the war, and my notes were sold at auction. I got them back cheap. I heard of one Norfolk house whose paper had been sold in that way, and they got it again for ten cents on a dollar. Others of my creditors asked me for a full statement, made on my honor, of what my debts were, and the amount of property that I had saved. I gave it, and they dealt very fairly with me. I couldn't pay fifty cents. Oh, they leave a man a little. Of course it depends a good deal on the kind of a man the creditor is, and a good deal on your own character."

"Will they let a man have more goods?"

"On credit?—no, sir. Won't do that. You may get them to fix it up in the way of consignment."

"Well, sir, is it reasonable for them to expect us to pay our debts? Now here am I. I may say that I haven't a cent in the world. Sherman's army burnt my store and my house."

"Sherman says he didn't."

"He did, sir. There can be no doubt of it. One of the Yankee officers told my wife not two hours before the fire began, 'Columbia is a doomed city.' I cannot but think that the moral obligation resting upon me to fulfil my contracts with my Northern creditor is neutralized. That was not civilized warfare. May be it was not my creditors who were responsible for that devastation. But some of us down here were innocent of the sin of secession, yet we had to suffer with the guilty. Why should not the innocent and the guilty at the North suffer together in the same way? I do not believe that I am morally bound to spend my old age in toiling to repay my Northern creditors. I ought to be legally released from my indebtedness, and not feel that there is a burden upon me which I can never shake off."

Thereupon followed an animated discussion. The question, considered as one of pure abstract morality, was decided against the old man; but it seemed to be the general opinion that he would have little practical difficulty in settling his affairs with his creditors. The company seemed to think that whatever might be abstractly right, they, individually, if they could not discharge all their obligations, would prefer paying a Southern creditor in full to making a division amongst Southern and Northern creditors.

"Well, doctor, how do the people up there feel about negro suffrage?"

"I think they're in favor of it. In New England they are, at any rate. In the first place, there's a class that think if the nigger gets a vote, they'll come down here and ride into office right away. Always been friends of the black man, philanthropic, and that sort of thing, you know. They all go in for it. Then there's a very large class who think that the South will always be raising the devil, seceding or something, if they don't give a vote to the niggers. 'The niggers have all been loyal,' they say. They all go in for it. Then a good many think that we, at the South, if we are left to ourselves, won't treat the niggers well; and that class goes in for it. I wish all our people could see it as I do, and they'd go in for it, too."

"How's that? Do you believe in negro suffrage?"

"Yes, I do; and I'll tell you why I do. It will work just the same here as it does there. The class of people there that represent our niggers, the laborers, have a right to vote. My father-in-law employs thirty-five Irishmen. They always vote the right ticket, and he tells them which is the right one. Now, major, if you hire thirty-five niggers, work 'em well, pay 'em well, and feed 'em well—they don't know Wm. H. Seward from a foreign war, they care nothing about the country (we all know what their 'loyalty' amounted to—Cuffee struck out for himself)—now how are they going to vote?"

"Why, they're going to vote as you say."

"Vote themselves white wives more likely," said a young man from Charlotte county. "No, no, sir; you are mistaken," said another, and there was a general expression of dissent. Some other way than that must be discovered for the South to obtain political power in the Union.

"The Northern friends of the negro," said the major, "if they want to benefit their protégé, had better abstain from any interference in that matter, for the Southern people will not be apt to stand it. Everybody admits that the negro is incapable of intelligently exercising the right of suffrage. Why give it to him, then? No people ever fought more bravely than ours have fought for the last four years. We have been obliged to succumb. With how small forces we carried on the war has never yet been told. General Lee could tell, and some time may. We were outnumbered five to one, and here we are subjugated. History records no example of such a war, followed by such a peace. Our people are quiet. No one talks of insurrection. We

go peaceably about our business. Every difficulty that has arisen in our streets is directly traceable to Yankee soldiers and the teachings of Yankee negroes. Why should the North profess to fear that we are not yet conquered, or are not honest when we say so? We are conquered, and all our actions acknowledge it. We may not love the Yankees; I don't think we pretend to do that, do we, captain? but we have made up our minds to behave as peaceable citizens. We can keep these States in the Union, and we mean to do it. We have tried our best to take them out, and we admit that we can't." This, in substance, the major delivered in an oratorical style, and seemingly with the approbation of all present. He then continued, "But, of course, doctor, the North is not unanimous on this question? I am given to understand that Mr. Johnson is opposed to negro suffrage."

"Yes, he is. He takes the same view of the thing that I do, and you may be sure that he'll be like a flint. They won't turn him."

"You know Mr. Johnson?"

"Yes, sir, I saw him when I was on there."

The conversation continued, and it seemed the conviction of all present that nothing could be more preposterous, and nothing was more improbable, than that Virginia should grant the right of suffrage to her negro population. If such a thing should happen, nothing but calamity could be reasonably expected. The national debt would be repudiated. What negro would deny himself a pound of sugar in order that he might honorably pay his share of the interest on it? The negroes could vote us into a war at any time. Anything would serve as a pretext. Cuba was full of slaves, make war on Spain and free them.

Every demagogue would do with them precisely as he chose. The doctor might talk of laborers voting as the capitalist directed, but if the laborer could vote he'd soon vote himself a living out of the capitalist's property. And even if he should obey the directions of his employer, that would be of little good, as the great majority of them would never have a regular employer.

A young man residing near Fort Monroe thought that a great many niggers would find employment in the Federal army, as he had been told by an officer whom he met there that the Government intended to distribute nigger regiments here and there throughout the South to keep the people quiet.

This statement provoked a good deal of indignant comment. Nothing would make the people angrier than that. It was said the people would universally regard it as an insult. They had borne a good deal, and were ready to bear more; but to have negro troops put over them was not a natural consequence of their defeat, and they would not bear that. There was a point at which forbearance ceased to be a virtue.

These remarks were made by the younger men of the little circle. The major enquired if the Federal officer who had made the remarks reported had seen service, for, said he, "he does n't talk like an old soldier. Did you find out how many fights he'd been in?"

The young man replied that the officer was a surgeon, who had entered the service with a view of improving himself in his business, and who, when asked about his battles, replied that he had never seen so much of the active operations as he would have liked. The young man found him in his mother's house. His mother, much against her will, had taken him as a boarder, because the surgeon very much wished it, and offered to have a guard put on the property if the lady would consent to receive him.

"You are not likely to hear such talk from the old soldiers on either side," said the major, who seemed to fill the position of mentor in the party. "I do not believe the War Department proposes to follow any such plan. If Mr. Stanton does adopt that policy, it will produce great evil, and postpone the day of peace. He need not put the negro on top of us. We will stay down without that."

## ENGLAND.—THE RESULT OF THE ELECTIONS.

LONDON, July 15, 1865.

WHIG and Tory are terms gone out of fashion except in remote rural districts. Throughout all the recent elections, what has struck me most has been the sedulous care with which either party has avoided identifying itself with the old historic appellations. There are few candidates bold enough to call themselves Tories, fewer still old fashioned enough to call themselves Whigs. We are all now-a-days Liberals or Conservatives; indeed, most of us profess to be a compound of both, and are either Liberal Conservatives or Conservative Liberals. Thus, as I foretold, the elections have had throughout a hybrid and indecisive character. If, according to the fashionable doctrine, the issue submitted to the country is simply whether Lord Derby or Lord Palmerston ought to be the Premier, it is clear that the country has no very decided opinion on the matter. It now seems pretty



certain that the relative proportions of the members who will take their seats on the opening of Parliament on the right hand or the left of the Speaker, will not be materially affected by the elections. The English boroughs were the uncertain element in the electoral problem; and the issue of these borough elections has left the Ministry and the opposition very much where they were, as far as mere numbers are concerned.

Some American friends of mine, who were present at our metropolitan elections, expressed great surprise at the apparent tameness of the whole proceedings. Certainly with you, I suspect, the practice of voting must be far more general than it is with us. The extraordinary anomalies of our electoral system have a good deal to do with this apathy as to the exercise of the franchise. Let me cite my own case as an illustration of how the system works or fails to work. I am, I regret to say, considerably past thirty. I am in possession of sufficient income to be persecuted by tax collectors. I have been for years connected with newspapers. I have been editor, proprietor, correspondent, contributor, anything, in fact, except compositor. I have had some experience in election matters; and may say, without any inordinate vanity, that I have contributed to the rejection or return of more than one candidate; and yet, till this week, I have never voted at a parliamentary election in my life, simply and solely because I had not a vote, and was what Mr. Bright delights to call "a political serf." At last I have acquired the privilege of a freeman, not because my present abode is more expensive than my former ones—the rental, I am glad to say, is decidedly lower—but because the staircase, on which my chambers are situated, happens to have no outer door, so that my rooms count as a single residence. Thus, with our well-to-do and educated classes, it is a matter of complete uncertainty whether you have a vote or not; and this fact tends, I think, to destroy, or at any rate impair, the feeling that the discharge of your electoral functions is in any sense a moral duty. It is quite surprising how small a proportion of the electors vote in our large constituencies. At Westminster and Lambeth the contest this year was unusually keen, and excited very general interest; but in either borough little more than half the constituents went to the poll. In large cities, the reasons which render many country voters unwilling to vote at all are entirely inoperative. There is no more trouble in voting in London than there is in taking a railway ticket, and infinitely less danger of being hustled or annoyed. Yet, somehow or other, electors will not bestir themselves enough to vote. The explanation I take to be, not that the public are indifferent about political questions, but that the class to which the vast majority of voters belongs under our present system is so well represented, that it cares very little about swelling the numbers of the majority by which members are returned. A poorer class, which would be admitted by any important extension of the suffrage, would probably vote much more energetically, simply because it would not be so adequately represented in Parliament.

However, if things were too quiet in London, they have been lively enough at some of our provincial towns. In Nottingham the military had to be called out, in order to protect the voters on their way to the poll. At Grantham the hustings were torn down by the mob, and the election had to be suspended till order could be restored. At Chippenham there was a riot after the result of the poll was announced, during which the vicarage was attacked, and the windows smashed in with the tombstones torn up from the graves of the neighboring church-yard. At Tavistock the successful candidate had to bolt for his life, and, it is said, escaped from his constituents in disguise; and at many other boroughs the war of eggs and brickbats was waged with a fury worthy of the good old times. Of course in Ireland we are used to such occurrences, and look upon them as the normal rule of election days. At Belfast the court-house, where the nomination of members takes place, was occupied by a mob of Protestant factory hands, who, according to a local account, "rushed in with yells of triumph, each flourishing a bludgeon or 'skull cracker,' not round, but square, except the handle"—and, armed with these moral persuaders, evincing a determination to hear nobody except Sir Hugh Cairns, the Orange candidate, and the future Chancellor, by the way, of the next Tory administration. "If," we are told, "an unfortunate Liberal, Presbyterian or Catholic, had fallen into the hands of the mob, his life would have unquestionably been sacrificed, for the police could not get in to the rescue, and the Orangemen were absolutely frantic." At Belfast, however, and other Irish boroughs, which have been disgraced by similar outrages, there is at least the excuse of strong sectarian and political prejudices to justify the excitement. In England the election riots have almost universally been created by one of those local squabbles which appear unintelligible to outsiders. At Nottingham the real contest lay between three Liberals, and the partisans of one candidate broke the heads of the other's supporters with a sublime indifference to all political considerations. Indeed, this Nottingham election was eminently character-

istic of our English social life. The candidates were Samuel Morley, the chairman of the defunct Administrative Reform Association, a radical manufacturer of the most advanced Manchester school; Mr. Paget, an eminently respectable Whig banker, of great local influence; and Sir Robert Clifton, or "Bobby Clifton," as his constituents delighted to call him. This gentleman's position cannot well be made intelligible to you without a lengthy disquisition. I suppose, however, most of you have read "Pendennis," and remember Sir Francis Clavering. Well, if you suppose Miss Amory's step-father to have been endowed with dauntless pluck, a sort of devil-may-care wit, and a rough power of slap-dash speaking, you will form some conception of the social position of the man whom the electors of one of the most radical boroughs in the country have returned as their representative. His Liberalism, such as it is, was of the most doubtful order; he had been, throughout the war, one of the most ardent supporters of the Confederate cause; he had taken an active part in hustling Mr. Stansfeld out of office, and in showing subservience to the French Government—a sin of all others the most unpardonable in ordinary English eyes; he had no money to bribe; his impecuniosity was a matter of notoriety in the town near which he lived, and for which he has been returned. But, in spite of all, the electors could not overlook the fact that he was the last of the Cliftons—of a race of baronets whose family had held property near Nottingham for centuries; whose ancestors had represented the borough scores and scores of times. A "born gentleman" who will consent to be "hail fellow well met" with any tradesman and mechanic he happens to encounter, has a sort of hold on popular respect and liking, even in our most democratic constituencies, whose power cannot easily be over-estimated. As long as a man is young, and good-looking, and plucky, "our people," as Thackeray observed, "hardly think the worse of him for sowing his wild oats plentifully." And so, the old Liberal member, Mr. Paget, was turned out; and Sir Robert Clifton was returned to Parliament as the free choice of a borough which has always been the especial home of Chartism and ultra Radicalism.

However, now that I have spoken of the displeasing side of the recent elections, let me turn to their brighter aspect. Few events can be more gratifying to thoughtful English Liberals than the result of the metropolitan contests this week. The great London boroughs approximate very closely to what all our constituencies must be whenever any large electoral reform is inaugurated in England. It is clear that with an extended suffrage we cannot maintain our present system, under which Milton, with a couple of hundred voters, returns as many members at the orders of the Fitz William family as Manchester with its half a million inhabitants. In some form or other, we shall be compelled to have large electoral districts, closely resembling the London boroughs both in their extent and in the absence of any distinct local characteristics. Now, hitherto, the experiment of such districts, as exhibited in London, had not been satisfactory. The name of a "metropolitan member" had become almost a term of reproach. That no gentleman or man of education had any chance of contesting these constituencies, that the election lay in the hands of pot-house cliques, that vulgar demagoguism of the lowest order was the only description of talent which would be recognized by such constituencies, were assertions made habitually by the opponents of reform, and to which it was not easy to find an honest answer. In the last Parliament Mr. Edwin James was returned for Marylebone, and Mr. William Roupell, now of Her Majesty's Penitentiary, was the elect of Lambeth. The colleagues of these gentlemen in the representation of the metropolis, though less notorious, were hardly more promising specimens of advanced Liberalism. Mr. Cox, the "Pet of Finsbury," as he used to be called, was a second-rate attorney, whose blunders rendered him the laughing-stock of the House of Commons. Williams, of Lambeth, was a poor caricature of the late Joseph Hume. Messrs. Ayrton Butler, Peto Shelley, Locke, and Doulton were all respectable mediocrities, who carried no weight in the House. The only two metropolitan members of political or general repute were Mr. Layard and Sir De Lacy Evans. The metropolis had come to be looked upon as a sort of Tom Tiddler's ground for political adventurers. Pushing barristers of doubtful Old Bailey repute, advertising tradesmen of the Barnum order, vestry celebrities, and debating club orators, had learned to consider themselves the class from which our metropolitan representatives ought to be selected.

The abuse had grown to be so great that, like most abuses in this country, it worked out its own remedy. A determination was come to by the leading men at these boroughs to see if their character for incompetency in the choice of representatives was really deserved. It was resolved to bring men of sterling repute before the electors, and to see whether they would know how to distinguish true merit from its pinchbeck counterfeit. It was owing to this resolution that Mr. Mill was brought forward for Westminster,

Mr. Hughes for Lambeth, and Mr. McCullagh Torrens for Finsbury. All these gentlemen proceeded on one principle. They relied solely upon their reputation as writers or men of thought; they discarded all the ordinary mechanism of electioneering. They had no public houses as committee rooms; no local solicitors in their hire as "confidential advisers;" no paid canvassers; no system of "sensational" placards or broadcast advertising. Every electioneering authority declared beforehand, and I believe sincerely, that without puffing, placarding, canvassing, and treating, it was impossible for any man to get in for a London constituency, unless he had that sort of popular notoriety enjoyed by old "Charley Napier," Lord Dudley Stuart, or poor "Tom Duncombe." Now most assuredly neither Mr. Mill, nor Mr. Torrens, nor even Mr. Hughes, had anything of this peculiar popularity. Their names are not "household words" amongst Englishmen. Yet on strict purity principles they were returned one and all by very large majorities. No doubt they owed their election mainly to an agency novel in electioneering affairs. The cheap penny press has virtually become a power in the state since the last elections; and by means of a paper whose circulation is as large as that of the *Daily Telegraph*, the electors of London can be canvassed to an extent to which personal solicitations could afford no parallel. Still the press could have effected nothing if the electors had not been sincerely anxious to choose the best men they could find. Money and elaborate canvassing, and even local popularity, were powerless against the resolution of the constituencies to return somebody who should be a credit to them. Since the event the Tory papers have endeavored to account for the return of Mill and Hughes by saying that their success was due to the zeal with which the electors were canvassed by their friends. I can only say that I saw a good deal of the working of both these gentlemen's committees, and that I never knew a contest carried on with a less display of activity on the part of the successful candidates. I should think there never was an election at which so many votes were given unsolicited. The success of Mill, Hughes, and Torrens was, I think, really due to two facts. In the first place, a large number of electors, who had never taken part previously in metropolitan elections, came to the polls as soon as they found they had a chance of returning a creditable candidate. In the second place, the working-men took a keen interest in the return of men whose names were known as champions of their cause, and showed a power of volunteer organization for which, I candidly confess, I should not have given them credit. When the reform question is discussed in the next Parliament, we shall, at any rate, hear no more about the degraded condition of the metropolitan constituencies.

Throughout the elections, the *Times* has maintained a most unusual silence about the whole contest. Having once assured its readers that nobody cared anything about political issues, and that the only issue to be tried at the hustings was whether Lord Derby should succeed Lord Palmerston, it has systematically ignored the elections. The only reason I can assign for this is that the "leading journal," with the strange absence of political insight which has recently signalized its management, had a half belief in the truth of the "conservative reaction," and fancying that the next Parliament might possibly inaugurate a Tory régime, was anxious to leave itself unpledged to either side in the contest. But the real truth is, that though the elections will effect very little change in what Mr. Disraeli termed the other day "the distribution of political power," they will produce a marked change in the constitution of Parliament. The Ministerial party—if we count Liberals of every shade as supporters of the Government—has gained some half dozen votes in the boroughs, and will certainly not lose in the counties. If, therefore, a vote of want of confidence in the Ministry should be proposed when the House next assembles, it will be rejected by a larger majority than in the late Parliament. But, on the other hand, the terms Ministerialist and Liberal will be far less identical in the newly elected legislature than they were in the old. There was not, as I anticipated, a signal increase in the number of independent Liberals returned to Westminster. Now Mr. Mill, in his last address to his constituents, defined clearly enough the policy of the party to which he has brought such an accession of strength. As between Tory and Whig administration, they will always vote for the latter. "We could not conceive," he said, "the circumstances under which any Liberal Ministry would not be preferable to any Conservative one." There is, therefore, no risk of any Tory-Radical coalition. But, at the same time, no Whig Ministry can continue in power without the aid of the advanced section, which will number some forty to seventy votes. And, therefore, the future policy of the Government will inevitably be moulded to a great degree in accordance with the principles of which Mr. Bright is the most distinguished advocate. I do not mean that the Government will be under the control of the Manchester party, but it will be unable to disregard their wishes with the same sublime

indifference it manifested during the crisis of the American war, when the adherence of the moderate Conservatives enabled Lord Palmerston to defy the hostility of the Radicals. It is a significant fact that not one of this section of the Liberals has lost his seat as yet at the hustings.

Lord Amberley has failed at Leeds, partly because he traded too much on Earl Russell's somewhat tarnished popularity—and a great town never likes to elect a man simply because he is the son of a living father—partly because *Punch* invented for him the nickname of "Namberley Pamberley." Mr. Gladstone will have a hard fight for the University of Oxford, though his son, more happy than the youthful Russell, has been returned for Chester. Professor Fawcett has got in at Brighton, and will be the first blind man who has ever been elected a member of Parliament. We have had every other description of physical invalid cases. We have had lame, deaf, and one-armed members. Happily, we have had many dumb ones—by choice, however, rather than necessity—but, till now, we have never had a representative who could not employ the time-honored phrase of "catching the Speaker's eye." Mr. Trevelyan, the nephew of Lord Macaulay, and the author of some smartish Indian sketches in "Macmillan's Magazine," has been elected at Tynemouth, and Sir Wentworth Dyke, proprietor of the *Athenæum* newspaper, is now a member for Wallingford.

Other than election news we have none this week whatever. The harvest is getting on rapidly, and will be gathered in the moment that the county elections are over.

#### MEMS FROM WESTMINSTER HALL.

THE legal world of London is undergoing its annual process of disintegration. The circuits have commenced, and the Guildhall sittings end to-day. The general elections, combined with these disturbing causes, have placed everything legal in the condition known familiarly as "sixes and sevens." The new Parliament is to be very strong in the forensic element. Nearly all the most distinguished Queen's counsel have seats, but as the numbers elected bear but a small proportion to the competitors, silk and stuff within and without the bar, who have been disappointed, the excitement among the denizens of Westminster Hall, till results were known, and during the early part of the week, was enormous. Every second man we met was a candidate, or the proposer or seconder of a candidate, for a provincial borough. Stuff was backing silk, and silk was seeking preferment, in anything but Hamlet's vein, by that near cut to the bench which lies across the hustings. Monday and Tuesday were the nomination and polling days in the city, and your correspondent, who was unlucky enough to be engaged at the Guildhall, wandered up and down like a lamb in search of its dam, or, to be more classical, like Æneas in Hades seeking his leaders, but never finding them. One had gone to Canterbury, a second to Exeter, a third to Manchester. Nervous attorneys ran hither and thither, jostled by poll-clerks, freemen-voters, spectacle-makers, breeches-makers, and merchant tailors, in hope that the errant Q.C. or his clerk might be discovered, even in wreck, amid the turbulent and noisy crowd. At last, after long delay, the great man's clerk appears, breathless and hot. He has just arrived by train, and Mr. Silk is at Stoke Pogis addressing the electors; so there is no hope. Among the leaders best known to fame thus absent were Mr. J. Coleridge, the son of the ex-judge, who has been returned for Exeter; Mr. Edward James, the leader of the Northern circuit, who is now member for Manchester; Mr. Digby Seymour, who has failed at Southampton; Mr. Bovill, Q.C., returned for Guilford; Mr. Roebuck for Sheffield; Mr. Huddleston for Canterbury; Mr. Thomas Chambers, the Common Sergeant, for Marylebone; Mr. Hawkins, and many others.

But in spite of general elections the law business of the realm must go on, and the sittings of the Central Criminal Court at the Old Bailey and the assizes have already commenced, and I proceed to record some few of the more notable decisions which have marked the close of the sittings after term at Westminster.

One of these is reported for the first time during the current week, although decided nearly a month since, and determines for the first time the long and much vexed question, whether a master can maintain an action for such an injury to his servant as prejudices or hinders the affairs of the employer. The action was brought against a railway company by a firm of brewers. Their traveller, while journeying on their business, was injured by a collision, or in some manner through the negligence of the company. The proceedings were to recover damages by the masters for the alleged injury which they had sustained, the servant being unable to perform his duties. The decision was in effect that the service performed by the railway company was a duty based on contract, and that by a well-known rule of law the only persons who can sue on a contract are the parties to it. The judgments of Erle C. J. Willes, Byles, and Montague



Smith, J. J., were given at great length, and are full of legal erudition, the Common Pleas being at present one of the strongest of the superior courts.

Of less legal importance, but involving a question of some legal difficulty, was another railway case, *Stewart v. the South-Western Railway Company* and *Sanders*, decided in Chancery on the 1st of July. The facts were simple. A man and his wife travelling by the company mentioned were injured by a collision. The surgeon of the company "fraudulently" and by misrepresentation induced them to take fifteen pounds in compensation for the injuries inflicted, and to give a receipt in full for all claims. The injured man, after signing the receipt, became worse, had a long illness, and found the money paid altogether inadequate. He commenced an action at law, and the company pleaded the receipt in full as bar to the action. The plaintiffs now applied to Chancery for an injunction to restrain the defendants, the railway company, from putting in such receipt, as it had been obtained by fraud. The Lord Chancellor Westbury granted the injunction. He said: "He considered the bill asking the injunction sought relief upon an old and well established ground of equitable jurisdiction. The court was asked to stay its hand, because the bill was for an injunction merely, when it should have asked also for relief by compensation. It was not necessary that the plaintiffs should extend their claim. It would have been an inconvenient course. The prayer was properly limited to such relief as the court could not refuse without repudiating its own jurisdiction, and the bill would have been wrong, if extended, it had asked relief, which probably the court would have refused to grant."

The past week has seen the first trial at the Central Criminal Court of the Old Bailey of the working of the Hon. J. Denman's act of Parliament, which gives to criminal advocates a right to sum up the evidence before the reply of the prosecution. In other words, the act, which came into operation on the 1st of July, assimilates the procedure in criminal to that in civil cases, and allows a prisoner or his defender to make two speeches. The rights of prisoners on trial have been, in spite of the boasted justice and liberality of antique law, a matter of gradual concession and enlargement, extending over the entire annals of criminal jurisprudence. Till very recently, the prisoner or his defender was not permitted to cross-examine the witnesses for the prosecution; and it was not till the year 1836 that the persons on trial for felonies were allowed personally or by counsel to address juries in defence. The state trials of Throgmorton, Udale, Parsons, Raleigh, and of the Stuart reigns generally, were full of acts of injustice and hardship. The present act is a further concession to justice and humanity. For if it is found an advantage in the elimination of truth, when the question to be adjudicated on is a piece of goods, that counsel should sum up, it can hardly be denied to be a gain when life and liberty are at stake.

A peer, Lord Winchelsea and Nottingham, a man some fifty years of age, and in that sense old enough to be wiser, refused to appear before a magistrate the other day, on the ground that he possessed or believed he possessed as a peer some fancied privilege of Parliament. He wrote a note to this effect in answer to the magistrate's summons, but on advice appeared in answer to a second and peremptory summons, and then alleged another excuse. The charge was for smoking in a railway station, and the noble peer was fined. Peers, like barristers, pilots, and other specified classes, are exempt from serving on juries, but their privileges are limited, and, save as to legislation, do not go greatly beyond this. They are not liable to arrest for debt; but their legislative powers are their chief possession, and the only one which may be considered dangerous or inimical to the interests of the community. They of course enjoy privileges of an indirect and even of an illegal kind, but these have no constitutional importance, and are due rather to the frivolity of citizens than the frailty of legislation.

The new act conferring on county courts a limited equity jurisdiction, one of the chief of the late Lord Chancellor's reforms, has just been printed. It comes into operation on the 1st of October, but it has immediate effect as to the rules and costs to be reframed. It bestows on county courts power and authority to administer equity, as they have hitherto administered common law, in all suits in which the real or personal estate does not exceed £500, and generally in all suits over which equity alone has jurisdiction to the same amount. The act contains twenty-three sections, and these generally enforce the relationship of county courts to the existing courts of Chancery that has heretofore subsisted between the county courts and the superior common law courts. The Lord Chancellor Westbury, in his scheme of legal education, insisted on a general acquisition of equity by students for legal honors, and the new jurisdiction will turn this branch of education to account. Trust accounts, suits for foreclosure and redemption, for specific performance, proceedings relative to wards and infants, to the trustee relief acts and bankruptcy, can all in future be administered in the county courts, where the sums in issue do not exceed five hundred pounds.

The act was printed, and bears date the 5th of July, and may be quoted as the 28 and 29 Vict., c. 99. On the same day the new act to amend the law of partnership was also issued. At one stroke this act is to remodel the law of partnership, as it has existed since the end of the last century, when settled by Lord Chief-Justice Eyre, 34 G. III., and Gould and Heath in the Common Pleas, in the case of *Waugh and Carver*. It was then decided that a share of profits made a share of losses, and that that in point of fact created a partnership—or, in the words of Tindal, J., that a "partnership is a mutual participation in profit and loss." The present act revokes that decision. The advance of money on contract to receive a share of profits does not now necessarily constitute the lender a partner. The mere fact of such a loan shall not of itself constitute such a partner—that is the purport of the first section. The second determines that if a servant or agent is paid by share of profits, he will not be necessarily a partner. The third, that an annuity out of profits, by the widow or child of a deceased partner, will not constitute the annuitant a partner. The act contains two other clauses, excepting a receipt of profits in consideration of a sale of good will, or any such lender of money as has been referred to, in the event of bankruptcy, from the incidents of partnership. This act, it cannot be doubted, will still further revolutionize the commercial resources of the country, and enlarge the operations of the trading community much beyond the limits reached even by the operations of the joint stock companies.

By Lord Westbury's retirement the digest of the statute law will doubtless be retarded. The pious hopes of Edward the Sixth, "when time shall serve, that the tedious and superfluous statutes were brought into one form together and made more plain and short, to the intent that men might better understand them," are not yet to be fulfilled. Reforms grow slowly in England. James the First cavilled at "the cross and culling statutes." Sir Nicholas Bacon napped out a digest, and his son, the great chancellor, Sir Francis, put that digest into shape. There was a committee of law reform sitting during the great fire of 1666, another in 1816, then in 1826, '33, and '55, but still there is no digest, and the retirement of the chancellor virtually postpones it *sine die*. The resignation of Lord Westbury under conservative pressure and the animosity of his personal enemies is felt to be legally a great loss. He was active and unremitting in the pursuit of his professional duties. The business of Chancery was wholly cleared up. His decisions were esteemed sound and unimpeachable, and his reforms have been, if not always successful, well conceived, and of a high class. The testimony of the supporters of the Government is uniform to his innocence of the charges laid against him and to his freedom from reproach, but it was felt by the country that patronage had been unwisely bestowed, if not corruptly, and that it was desirable to vindicate the honor of the public service even by the sacrifice of so illustrious and dignified a victim.

The trial of the Mercantile Bank of New York v. Windsor took place on Thursday in the Queen's Bench, to recover the sum of £36,000 from the man Windsor, the amount of his alleged deficiencies or defalcations. It resulted in a verdict for the plaintiffs, a conclusion which had been foreseen by the counsel on both sides, as a more hopeless case could not have been submitted to the jury than that for the defence. The two leaders were away on election business, and the defence rested on Mr. Edward Clarke, a young man of two or three and twenty, recently called to the bar, who displayed considerable acumen and energy in his address to the jury on behalf of his client. His argument was, in effect, that some one else other than Windsor had been the real culprit, that great irregularity had existed in the manner in which affairs were conducted, "the cash of the bank had not been counted for two years," that the vault-banks were unsafe, and that it was impossible with any degree of certainty to fix the alleged losses on the defendant. This was undoubtedly a judicious line of defence, and the jury for some time refused to find a verdict for the plaintiff, on the ground that the case had not been made out, but ultimately, when sent back by the Chief-Justice, gave a verdict as described. The case was in no wise remarkable, other than that Windsor had been applied for under the Extradition Treaty, and that the application had been found untenable.

TEMPLAR.

LONDON, July 18, 1865.

### THE HUMORS OF THE ANTHROPOLOGISTS.

BEFORE the rebellion there were few European writers on ethnology or anthropology who did not assert that the white race in America had already begun to decay, and that but for the new blood continually infused into it by the hordes of emigrants who flocked to our shores in the hope of bettering their condition, it would very soon become extinct. As it was, even with all the advantages of a constant regeneration, its identity could not possibly be maintained for more than a few centuries, and then the people who had civilized a continent, enriched the world with their contributions



to science, literature, and art, and founded an empire based upon the principles of human liberty, would take their place in history by the side of the Egyptians, the Aztecs, and the other nations which have either disappeared or else live only in a few scattered fragments sunk in the lowest depths of effiteness and barbarism. Before proceeding to adduce the evidence which effectually dissipates all these apprehensions, we propose to cite a few extracts from late authorities, which will show how superficially we have been studied by the scientific men of Europe, and which, if they do not instruct, will certainly amuse, our readers.

Some ten years ago, M. Desor, a German anthropologist, visited this country, and soon afterwards published the results of his observations in a journal devoted to the science he represented. There are few persons pretending to a scientific status who would in so short an article make so many erroneous assertions and deductions. For instance, he says:

"A chief characteristic of the American is the length of the neck, not that it is absolutely longer than amongst us, but appears longer on account of leanness. The Americans again soon recognize the European by the opposite characters. 'He is a stranger,' they will say, 'look at his neck; an American has no such neck.'"

Certainly, the longest necked persons we ever saw were in Germany and Switzerland. We are, undoubtedly, a sharp and discriminating people, but we question if there are many amongst us who are able to tell a foreigner by the length of his neck. It is only necessary for a person to open his eyes and walk down Broadway to lead him to doubt M. Desor's authority on the neck question. Again, he says:

"The most intelligent Americans clearly perceive that the increasing delicacy of form (especially in the women) ought, if possible, to be arrested. Despite of their instinctive aversion to the Irish (forming the largest contingent of immigrants), they are aware that the development of the glandular system of that race is well calculated to neutralize the influences of the climate for a considerable time. It has been observed that the finest women are descended from European parents."

Hence, to save ourselves from destruction, our women are on the lookout for Irish husbands, and our men seek their wives in preference from the daughters of Erin! That "the finest women are descended from European parents," admits of no doubt in our opinion. We have met persons, however, who give the palm to those of Asiatic, African, or aboriginal origin. But to continue:

"The influence of the climate is not merely shown in the descendants, but in the parents. There are few Europeans who get fat in the United States; the Americans, on the contrary, who reside a considerable time in Europe, become more healthy and portly. What still more characterizes the North American is his stiff lank hair. There is a striking contrast in this respect between the Englishman and the American. We look in vain among American children, despite of all the care taken by their mothers, for curly-headed children, so frequently seen in England.

"This influence on the hair is probably owing to the dryness of the climate. Hair, as is well known, curls when moist; we are, therefore, not surprised that in England the hair is inclined to curl, whilst it remains lank in America. The hair of the European becomes in America drier, and requires pomatum, etc., to keep it glossy and soft; hence also there is a very large number of hair-dressers in America.

"Every European who arrives in New York, Boston, or Baltimore, will also be struck with that feverish activity the American displays. Every one is in a hurry; the people don't walk, they run. Something like it is no doubt seen in the larger commercial towns of England, but the activity of the Englishman seems more under the control of reason; that of the Yankee is instinctive—at any rate, the result of habit or of an innate restlessness. They even exhibit this accelerated activity during their meals, which, even if they have nothing important to do, are despatched in less than no time.

"One of the first physiological characteristics of the American type is an absence of corpulence. On travelling the streets of New York, Boston, Philadelphia, etc., you will among one hundred persons scarcely see a portly one, who, moreover, will frequently be found to be a foreigner."

There are only two or three of these absurdities which require notice. In the first place, if M. Desor speaks the truth, the United States would be the sanatorium for all those unhappy persons who, like Mr. Banting, have more adipose tissue than they can conveniently carry. Instead of undergoing torture as did this poor gentleman, by restricting themselves for many months to a non-saccharine and non-amylaceous diet, they would only have to pass a short time in this country, stuff themselves to their hearts' content on sugar and starch, and then return to their own land reduced to the coveted dimensions. The circumstance, however, that more copies of Mr. Banting's little book were sold in this country than in England is perhaps an indication that there are still some fat persons left among us, and if any one desires further evidence of the fact, we would suggest that he make a tour of the banks, insurance and railway companies' offices, and examine into the physical condition of the presidents and directors of these institutions. Then let him go to the mercantile and manufacturing

establishments, and inquire for the senior partners, and subject these gentlemen to a like inspection. This done, he will probably arrive at the conclusion that nine out of ten of those whom he has looked upon are as portly in appearance as any he has ever seen in any quarter of the globe. There is no doubt, however, that Americans begin to get fat a year or two later than the people of other countries. This is due to the fact that they continue longer in active business habits. After the age of fifty, there are as many stout Americans to be met with as Englishmen, Germans, Frenchmen, or representatives of any other nation.

But is obesity a sign of high physical and mental development? By no means. If it were, we should look for perfection in these respects among the Daniel Lamberts and the fat girls who have at various times astonished the world with their amplitude. The reason why the obese period is a little postponed with us is, as we have said, the fact that we labor longer and more energetically with our bodies and minds than the people of any other nation of the world. We have work to do, and we do it with a will. Under these circumstances we cannot get fat. We have the alternative of torpor and obesity or activity and leanness. In the early part of our lives we take the latter; as we get older we choose repose, and then we grow in width and depth. When we wish to fatten hogs, we subject them to a certain regimen. We restrict their bodily exercise, give them as much as they can eat, and keep their minds in as tranquil a state as possible. The same process carried out on the human subject would be just as effectual. Whether it is worth while for one to try it who has other objects in life than obtaining a protuberant abdomen, is a question which we in this country have long ago decided for ourselves.

In regard to the hair, M. Desor is even more absurdly wrong. In the first place, every young woman who has ever curled her hair knows that the effect of the weather is just the opposite of that he asserts it to be. In dry seasons the curl is tight; in wet ones it is almost impossible to retain the semblance of a twist. The curliness or straightness of the hair is not a matter of climate at all, but one of race or of individual peculiarity. In the Caucasian or white race, it is generally slightly inclined to wave, but may be either very straight or very curly; in the Mongolian, or red and yellow race, it is always straight; and in the negro, or black race, it is always crisp and tightly curled. We have only to consider the facts connected with the climates of the regions inhabited by these races to see that the amount of moisture in the atmosphere has nothing to do with the character of the hair as to curliness or straightness.

In regard to the rarity of curly hair among Americans, M. Desor's assertions are altogether erroneous. As many curly-haired boys and girls and men and women are to be met with here as in any European country, and a great many more than in several we have visited. The Irish, the Hollanders, the Spaniards, the Italians, the Hungarians, and the Scandinavian nations, generally have straight hair. In the Germans, the French, the English, and the Scotch, there is no marked predominance of either curly or straight haired people. In the United States, the two classes appear to be about equally numerous.

There are other points of M. Desor's remarks which we might touch upon but for the fact that there are more important personages awaiting our notice, whose eccentricities in anthropological science bear about the same relationship to his that a Fresnel light does to a tallow candle. To these gentlemen we therefore ask the reader's attention.

Within the last two or three years a number of British gentlemen, actuated doubtless by the most praiseworthy and disinterested motives, met together and organized the "Anthropological Society" of London.

As the name of the association indicates, the object of its founders was the cultivation of all knowledge bearing, however remotely, upon the natural history of mankind. They and their associates were to institute enquiries relative to the anatomical structure, the origin, the habits, the customs, the ceremonies, the modes of life, etc., of man in all parts of the globe. They were to search out the causes which had led or were supposed to have led to the extinction of races, and to suggest means for obviating their effects in future. The laws which govern man's development, which relate to his fitness or unfitness for particular avocations, which bear upon his food, his clothing, his habitations, or the thousand other circumstances which affect his well-being, were all to be considered, and his relations to the inferior animals were indicated as a special subject deserving of the most thorough and persistent thought and research.

Among the members were several gentlemen who had already achieved deservedly high reputations in science, but, as is always the case with young societies, the great majority were either altogether ignorant of anthropology, or else just possessed of that modicum of learning which, when

acquired by a weak or shallow mind, leads its possessor to think himself almost omniscient.

At the second meeting of the society of which any record was published, a paper was read by a Mr. Bollaert, on the past and present populations of the New World. In this production it is said that true liberty belongs to the white races of Europe, that the whites in the United States are becoming extinct, that they are lawless and ungovernable, and that the people of that "late lamented institution, the United States of America," might do something better than slaughter each other in a sanguinary civil war. This paper was the text for the following most extraordinary debate. If there is anything like it in the annals of any other learned society, we should like to see it.

"Dr. Berthold Seemann said that he could, from his own experience, confirm Mr. Bollaert's observations respecting the comparative infertility both of the descendants of Europeans living in America, and of the offspring of mixed marriages. He had generally found that Americans have only two or three children. In Panama the mulattoes often have many children, but they die early. Dr. Seemann stated that he fully believed that the present population of the United States would die out if it were not constantly recruited from Europe. The Americans seem, too, to be assuming the characteristics, both mental and physical, of the aboriginal Indians. They are moody, often sitting for long together without saying a word, but when excited talking with extraordinary vehemence; they are very lean, have no calves, and their hair is long and straight, very seldom curly. In some parts of the United States, however, very fine men are found, especially in Kentucky. Dr. Seemann thought they were of German origin—he had himself conversed with a Kentuckian seven feet nine inches high who spoke German.

"Mr. Bendyshe enquired whether there is anything on record about the prolificness of the Indian women before the conquest. As an instance of the deleterious effect of the climate of North America, he mentioned the case of a gentleman who after ten years of married life in Canada was childless and almost imbecile, but who on returning to Europe was restored to health and had a child. Mr. Bendyshe also ventured to express an opinion that the gigantic Kentuckian had come from Yorkshire."

There was some other conversation to the same effect, in which the present degradation and ultimate extinction of the whites of America were asserted to be beyond the possibility of a doubt, and then Prof. Marshall exhibited the brain of an idiot boy, which was remarkable for its smallness. Perhaps he might have found better examples of microcephaly among the learned fellows who surrounded him.

Who Dr. Seemann and Mr. Bendyshe are we have not the slightest idea. The former appears to have travelled, and, like other voyagers of more renowned character, he delights in "long yarns." He does not limit the injurious effects of the American climate to the human family, however, for, at a subsequent meeting of the society, he says:

"The influence of climate on race appears to be considerable. Cattle taken to America become so stupid that they lose the instinct of self-preservation, and the trains on the American railways are obliged to be provided with cattle-catchers, as the animals will not get out of the way."

The worst of it all is, that this twaddle went on without a word of dissent. There there should be asses in the Anthropological Society of London is not very wonderful, but that scientific men like Professors Owen, Busk, and Marshall, and men of the world like Captain Burton, could listen to such stuff, and consider it "science," is something strange. In reading the remarks made at various times, and the papers contributed to the "Anthropological Review," the organ of the Society, it is very evident that a spirit of intense hostility exists on the part of many of the members towards America and everything appertaining to the country. In fact, it will be very evident to any one who takes the trouble to look through the Transactions of the British Association, that the Anthropological Society is mainly made up of a pestilent set of men, who are seeking their own notoriety rather than the furtherance of science, and at the last meeting of the Association, at Newcastle, they received several rebukes, which it would be well for them to remember. We can therefore afford to pass over such false science as is contained in the passages we have quoted; but as the opinion that the white race in America has degenerated is held by some European *savans* of eminence, and is even entertained with a lingering dread by some of our own people, who base their views upon foreign ideas, instead of looking around them, we propose to adduce a few facts to show that the Caucasian race in the United States is as high in the scale of human development as it is in any other part of the world to which its enterprise has taken it.

The report of the Provost-Marshal General is before us, and supplies ample evidence to sustain this position. In the military services of most civilized nations a strict examination is made of recruits, and if there are reasonable grounds for apprehending a deficiency of stamina or the existence of any disqualifying physical or mental infirmity, they are not allowed to enter

the army. The results of these examinations, based upon the inspection of many thousand men, afford very trustworthy data in regard to the strength and vigor of nations, because the life of a soldier is such that the highest degree of physical development is necessary, in order that its hardships and privations may be endured. In our service, it appears that the ratio of men rejected for disability of all kinds was 285.52 per thousand, whilst in the French service it was, in the years from 1831 to 1843, 324.4, and in 1859 317. In the British army it was, in the years from 1832 to 1862, 317.3, and in the Belgian army, from 1851 to 1855, 320.6 per thousand. The advantage is thus shown to be very greatly in favor of the United States.

If it be said that the requirements were less rigid in our service than in that of either of the nations mentioned, it can be answered with perfect truth that the reverse was the case; for whilst we had thirty-six disabling causes the British had but twenty-three and the French but twenty. When we examine the tables giving the results for individual diseases, we see that, in regard to many of the most important, the superiority is with our people.

It is considered by military authorities advisable that the circumference of the chest of a recruit should be equal to half his height. If it is less than this, the individual will probably prove deficient in stamina. From a table in the report cited, we find that the average height of Americans is 66.44 inches, the circumference of the chest at full inspiration 35.16 inches, and at full expiration 32.75 inches. When moderately expanded, therefore, the average American chest is fully up to the severe requirements of a military life.

It is to be recollected that the data contained in the Provost-Marshal General's report relate to American males of all ages between fourteen and sixty-five, the average being 30.59, at which age every anatomist and physiologist knows the full development of the thorax has not been reached. There is, therefore, no room to doubt that in strength, in freedom from disease, in physical development, and in all the elements which tend to show tenacity of life, the American white is not surpassed by the people of any other country in the world.

But are statistics really necessary to prove these points? Are they not abundantly shown in the powers of endurance, in the energy, the unfaltering spirit, the calm, quiet, resolute will which our whole people, and especially our soldiers, have shown throughout the sanguinary war which has so happily been brought to a close? If there ever was a nation which has proved its manhood and its vitality in the face of almost insurmountable obstacles—obstacles before which other people admit they would have succumbed—that nation lives in the United States of America; and, our word for it, now that success has attended their efforts, there will be no lack of arguments to prove their vital tenacity, even from those who have hitherto disputed it most, and we should not be surprised to learn that even Dr. Seemann and his *confrères* had begun extolling not only the human family as found in America, but the whole animal kingdom.

## OCEANIC TELEGRAPHY.

THE memory of New York is none of the best, but she cannot have forgotten the celebration of the laying of the submarine telegraph in 1858, and the festivities and glorifications thereupon attendant. We know how we all counted our chickens before they had clipped the shell. The city feast was a meat-offering thrown away. The illuminations illustrated nothing more than the streets. The poets who fathomed the depths of the bathos with their lines, as that of the telegraph did those of the sea, strung their lyres in vain. If their odes had no other elements of poesy, they were, at least, pure works of the imagination. The glory of the Grand Cyrus was but for a day. The philosophers who had averred that the thing could not be, and who had been put to shame for a little season, exalted their heads again among the stars. The telegraph, after a few stammering utterances, held its peace. De Saury disappeared into the mysterious darkness whence he issued, and became, indeed, what he had always been suspected of being, a myth. In short, the cable refused to talk, and the telegraph was a failure.

And yet not altogether so. The possibility of conversing three thousand miles off was demonstrated. A single word was enough to prove that, and there were a good many more than one, first and last. Still, it was not a success, excepting so far as its mistakes furnished the elements of knowing how they might be avoided, and we were a little ashamed of our precocious rejoicings, and did not delight in hearing the matter talked about. But Mr. Field, with an honorable perseverance and a living faith in his idea, which



is the badge of all the tribe of benefactors of mankind, did not despair of success, and succeeded in inspiring his confidence into the sluggish soul of capital. It took time to recover from the depression of the first mishap; but the good time came, a new cable was woven, and the *Great Eastern* is even now depositing its strands along the bed of the ocean stream. There is good reason to believe that the marvel is on the eve of accomplishment, and that the Old World and the New are about to talk together, as friend with friend, with most miraculous organ. Not only will deep cry unto deep, but continent unto continent. The children of men will be brought nearer to one another, and will know each other more, and, it is to be hoped, like each other better. The cable may be the cord that is to bind nations together in a closer friendship than they have ever yet known, and be, indeed, a link in the chain of events that is to secure peace on earth and good-will to men.

Should it be successful, as it will be, this time or the next, what a revolution it will work in many of the doings of men! In fact, Field will do for the continents, which the ocean has hitherto held apart, what Morse has already done for the continents separately. It has already, in connection with steam, revolutionized diplomacy, and it will work mighty changes in the way of doing business. The foreign affairs of nations are transacted on a totally different footing and in an entirely different way from what they were fifty years since, and so must be the foreign affairs of individuals. And the change will be, on the whole, in favor of honest dealings in matters public and private. The time is gone, never to return, when the delay of a courier by a flood can unsettle a favorite or upset a prime minister, as happened in the case of the Princess des Ursins and Cardinal Alberoni. Steam and lightning have simplified the science of diplomacy by making many of its old arts and artifices impossible. All the aid it drew from mystery and darkness is gone, inasmuch as facts are known in London as soon as they happen in Madrid or Vienna. Even Talleyrand would be forced to make his exception the rule of his conduct, and tell the truth when he wished particularly to deceive, when all crooks and crannies are brought to light by the magic flash of telegraphic lightning.

And so it will be with private mercantile affairs. When all men are put on an equal footing of intelligence as to prices and markets, the advantages that used to come from private advices, or even from sagacious guesses, will disappear, and all fair traders have equal chances. Good judgment and practical experience will not be as liable as now to be outstripped by cunning and chicanery. Some kinds of enterprise, indeed, will suffer a sea-change from this submarine whispering-gallery. Adventurous spirits who love to deal with the property of other men as if it were their own, will find their wings singed and their flights checked. Enterprising men of business who have possessed themselves of the funds of other people; cashiers and bank clerks who have subjected the plethora of institutions to which they belonged to a little wholesome phlebotomy; ready writers who have had the ungenerous modesty to prefer writing somebody else's name at the foot of a bit of paper—these, and such as these, will be apt to find their deeds blazed abroad by the intrusive telegraph, and their shrinking natures subjected to the parade of a public reception on their arrival, and of a complimentary escort on their return to their native shores.

The newspapers will have their share in these telegraphic overturnings, and whether it will be for their advantage or not remains to be seen. All history will be contemporary, and foreign nations will no longer stand to each other in the relation of posterity. Much fine writing and profound wisdom will be rendered useless or have to seek new occasions for its display. With what heart, for instance, could the *London Times* or *Standard* have indited those miracles of political skill in which was demonstrated the certain success of Jeff. Davis and the inevitable victories of Lee, when the next morning the sea might have given up the fact of the surrender of the one and the flight of the other! But there is one particular in which the telegraph may read an excellent lesson to editors as well as to public men of all sorts. And that is as to the value of brevity. Brevity, that soul of wit, will be enforced under fearful penalties. Speech is golden indeed at a guinea a word, address and signature included. Suppose a similar tax could be laid by Congress on public speeches and newspaper articles, what a promoter of conciseness it would be, and what a retrenchment in the weapons of our logomachy! To be sure, Congress could not be expected to tax its own manufacture of speeches, any more than to rectify its own mileage. But public documents, Fourth of July orations, caucus speeches, might be assessed at so much a word, to the great advantage of the revenue and the greater relief of the lieges. However, we only throw out the suggestion, and will afford an example of the conciseness we desiderate by stopping at once without following out any of the many leadings branching out from our topic.

## ARMY CORRESPONDENCE.

III.

### TRIALS AND FEATS OF CORRESPONDENTS.

UNSATISFACTORY as the average merit of army correspondence has been, it is nevertheless true, as already admitted, that the productions of certain correspondents, on special occasions, deserved no mean measure of praise. Moreover, besides these few, there was quite a number of others, who, although lacking what was most indispensable for a successful pursuit of their calling, viz., natural and acquired intelligence, comprehensiveness and accuracy of observation, fluency and polish of style, yet proved themselves possessed of certain subordinate qualities, such as power and patience of physical endurance, disregard of personal discomfort and danger, ingenuity and amplitude of resources, persistency of purpose, and indefatigable energy. For the display of the latter they deserve as much credit as they invite unfavorable criticism for the lack of the former, and this credit shall be as freely awarded them as their shortcomings have been unreservedly exposed. Probably no less than one hundred and fifty persons assumed the part of army reporters in the course of the war. The experience of most of them was varied enough to enable each to fill a voluminous record. Hence to recount individual adventures will be impracticable, and only a general reference to them can be made.

The locomotion of many of the army reporters was wonderful. The great distances marched and vast regions traversed during the successive invasions of rebel territory by the loyal armies have been favorite subjects of national pride and praise. But the moving about from North to South and East to West of correspondents exceeds by far even the travelling in search of employment done by the most useless of our generals, whose fate it was to be ordered from one army to another, only to be returned with protest to the War Department by the several commanding generals. Many of the managing editors made it a rule to keep their most efficient correspondents continually in motion, by sending them from one part of the theatre of war to another, as the public interest shifted from point to point according to the time and character of the operations of the various armies. A battle being over and "done up" by a correspondent in Virginia, he had hardly time enough to rest from this culminating labor of a campaign, before an order reached him from his chief to start without delay and repair as hurriedly as possible to Tennessee, or Georgia, or Louisiana, or North or South Carolina, as the anticipation of events in another quarter might compel. From the banks of the Mississippi or Red River, the mountains of Georgia, or the Atlantic or Gulf coast, he would be again ordered to Virginia or another centre of interest in a few weeks or months. And thus it fared with them from campaign to campaign, from season to season. Their yearly reckonings of travel would foot up thousands and tens of thousands of miles. That this chronic migration from time to time was attended with no little personal discomfort and injurious effects upon health will not appear strange.

However, this professional vagrancy was by no means the worst trial correspondents had to undergo. The hardships and perils incurred while in the field with active armies taxed them far more severely. It is strictly true, that if not at all, at least at certain, times they endured as much as the soldiers in the ranks, or even more. Ordinarily they messed with officers—if practicable, at some headquarters. But it happened not unfrequently that their duties and the movements of the army compelled them to forego the comforts of fixed quarters, and for weeks, during offensive operations, take their chances of finding shelter at night and in inclement weather, and of satisfying the cravings of hunger. What this means, those only who have marched with armies limited to a certain amount of rations for a certain number of days, can fully understand. Hospitality is one of the characteristics of the soldier, but it becomes as difficult to extend as to receive it when, as frequently occurred, the supplies were reduced to a few days' rations, and these of bacon and crackers only, with no definite prospect of replenishment before them. Then it became literally true that neither love nor money could be relied on to secure food. The poorest beggars in the Atlantic cities then fared no worse than the correspondents. Whole days without a morsel of nourishment, and weeks upon the scantiest fare, was to them no unusual occurrence. The necessity of providing food not only for themselves, but also for their horses, added much to the misery of their existence.

To this periodical starving were added other hardly less trying bodily vexations. Upon the march their baggage, like that of officers and men, was of the most limited extent, and even what little they could find transportation for was often lost or stolen, so that for weeks they had to get along as best they could without a change of upper or nether garments. Of course, they suffered as much from exposure and the variations of weather



during the different seasons as any one in the army. To sleep on the ground in the open air, in rain, cold, or snow, was no uncommon necessity with them. To dry their clothes on their backs in the summer sun, or to find them ablaze upon awaking from hugging the camp-fire too closely while seeking sleep in the winter nights, was also frequently their lot. Perhaps their worst vexation was to find, on rising from weary slumbers, their steeds gone—wandered off during the night in search of food, or led off by remorseless blue coats, who would rather endure the pangs of conscience than the pains of sore feet. To be obliged then for many livelong days to struggle afoot, rain or shine, in the mud and mire or sea of dust alternately produced by the march of armies, was the very climax of tribulation.

With these sore personal experiences were joined the risks of war, to which they were continually exposed. To venture within the range of rifled or round shot or shell, or minié or ordinary musket balls, was not required of them by their employers. Nor can it be safely asserted that very many of them improved the opportunity to test the effect of these various "messengers of death" upon their nerves by coming voluntarily within sight and hearing of their parabolic flight. It is a fact, nevertheless, that not a few of their number never showed this natural and excusable shyness, but finding that, without going under fire, the possibility of observation while an action progressed was very limited, they took, in order to be able to discharge their duties more faithfully, the chances of battle as much as any general or staff officer did, by riding along the lines, following columns of attack, and posting themselves at prominent and exposed points for a better view of the field. Some, carried away with the wild enthusiasm which the noise and fury of battle are apt to kindle in a manly breast, went even further at times, and kept up with the charging columns until they closed with the lines of the enemy; or volunteered their services as temporary aides-de-camp to general officers, and served as such as gallantly and diligently as any regularly commissioned officer. Two or three of these paid with their lives for their zeal; others bear lasting remembrances of the war in the form of scars from wounds of greater or less severity; and again others had horses shot under them. The official reports of several generals bear witness to the personal bravery shown and valuable service rendered by correspondents as volunteer aids in some of the bloodiest battles. Their intrepidity, having been without the line of their proper duty, may have partaken of foolhardiness. They certainly received but a modicum of praise for it. That they were, however, bold and fearless without the selfish motive of prospective reward, is all the more to their credit.

Captivity, no less than balls and bullets and bayonets, made part of the personal hazards incurred by correspondents. About a dozen tasted the bitterness of rebel prisons for more or less protracted periods. The circumstances of the capture of several form some of the most striking and adventurous incidents of the war. To fall into the hands of the enemy involved for them a far greater risk than for the officers and men of the army. The latter were sustained by the hope of exchange while prisoners of war. The captured correspondents had no right to ask, and no reason to expect, anything but imprisonment to the close of the war. The boldness and fortitude exhibited by several in the manner of their escape are well known, and will live among the chief romantic chapters of the conflict.

Not the lightest grief of the correspondents was the persecution they received at the hands of some of the commanding generals. The right of generals in command of independent armies to permit or prohibit the presence and regulate the status within their lines of all that come under the head of "army followers," cannot be disputed. But this right did not privilege them to allow established regulations to remain dead letters as against correspondents generally, and insist upon their enforcement only in case of their violation by certain writers for the press against whom they had personal grudges on account of certain strictures on their official conduct printed in the papers which they represented. Right or wrong, it is a matter of record that they did persecute a number of correspondents by banishment from the lines, imprisonment, trial by court-martial, and even by the most humiliating petty punishments, such as are inflicted upon private soldiers for minor breaches of discipline.

The greatest enterprise was shown by correspondents in the manner of writing out their reports for publication and ensuring their prompt transmission to their destination. When they had no important event to describe, they took their time in the collection and working up of matter, and used the regular army mails, or at best the special messengers with whom the leading Eastern and some of the Western papers had provided their correspondents for the conveyance of despatches, and who acted as a sort of go-betweens from the army to the nearest post or telegraph office from which the means of direct and quick communication with the place of publication could be fully relied on. But when they had great movements and actions

to report, they usually strained their own energies, both as to quickness of preparation and the most expeditious transmission, to the utmost. To save time then became their principal object. When darkness had put an end for the day to marching and fighting, and all the army, save those watching for its safety from surprises—men and beasts—were seeking and finding repose and new strength for the coming work, the correspondents could be seen with weary eyes, busy the whole night through, with pen or pencil, at the dim light of camp fires or commissary candles, enlarging their notes into many long columns. And with the break of day they would saddle and mount their horses, speed to the nearest landing or station, and then journey on many hours and often days until they had deposited the fruits of their labors in the hands of their employers. Frequently they started from the battle fields immediately after actions were over, in order to lose the least possible time in getting their reports through, riding whole nights and days through regions infested with the enemy's marauders, and jumping aboard steamboats or trains, devoting every available moment of the entire journey to the drawing of maps and writing out of notes. Several of the best battle accounts printed were prepared wholly on railroad trains by correspondents, who upon starting had not a line ready for the compositors, and upon arriving at their destination were able to deliver their reports in full to the managing editors. It was an established rule with the latter to instruct their correspondents always to come through with their reports *in propriis personis*, not only to ensure their safe delivery, but also to superintend their printing and assist in the preparation of editorial comments. Journeys for this purpose were made to New York and other Eastern and Western cities from Fort Donelson, Shiloh, New Orleans, Vicksburg, Memphis, Chattanooga, Charleston, and other distant points. When reporters missed railway connections while *en route*, or ascertained that rivals were ahead of them, they often used the telegraph to transmit complete reports, filling columns. Cairo, Nashville, Louisville, Cincinnati, Washington, and Baltimore, were the places from which these voluminous despatches were usually started over the wires.

It will be admitted that these efforts required extraordinary energy of body and mind. Nor did those who displayed it go entirely unrewarded. It is true that none even of the most successful correspondents either attained a reputation likely to be lasting, or accumulated anything out of their regular salaries. But the more generous and well to do of their employers sometimes allowed extra compensation for achievements of the kind described. And many of the journals have not been slow, both during and since the close of the war, to make permanent use of the fine journalistic capacities developed by army reporters while in the field, by attaching them to their respective editorial staffs. In most of the leading newspaper offices throughout the country ex-army correspondents are now found holding important editorial positions, and in this wise, if in no other, has army correspondence proved a positive gain to journalism. While war reporting from its very nature could but be an ephemeral vocation, an abnormal, short-lived journalistic outgrowth of the times, and war reporters as a class have passed out of existence, individuals belonging to it continue identified with the profession and infuse new vigor and enterprise into it.

It may not be out of place to conclude this review with some statements relative to the amounts of money expended by the several journals for army correspondence, for which, upon the whole, they received such inadequate returns. The salaries of the correspondents formed the least item of expense. They ranged from \$1,000 to \$3,000 a year, reaching the latter figure only in a few instances. Their current expenses, which they were allowed in addition to their salaries, often amounted to as much as these figures and more. Each correspondent may be said to have represented an average yearly investment of from \$1,000 to \$5,000. Special messengers were paid lower wages, but also allowed their expenses, which were frequently larger than those of the correspondents, owing to the heavy expenditure continually incurred in passing to and from the armies. Then came the cost of horses and equipments and general campaigning outfit of the correspondents. Of horse-flesh a great deal was used up by them owing to the irregular feeding and grooming their animals received, and the constant exhausting use they were put to while active campaigning was going on. Some of the correspondents were mounted half-a-dozen times in a single year. The transfer of correspondents from one army to another far distant, often from want of means and time for transportation, compelled the abandonment of their entire outfit and a replenishment in their new sphere of duty. Property thus left behind was hardly ever recovered. Last, not least, was the expense of telegraphing reports. The expense either of journeys of correspondents with their reports from the field to the place of publication, or of sending their reports over the wires, made the cost of single battle accounts at times many hundreds of dollars.

In the first two years of the war, all papers, East and West, employing correspondents spent money most lavishly. The expenses of the New York Journals each were not less than from \$60,000 to \$100,000 a year. The Boston, Philadelphia, and Western papers invested from \$10,000 to \$30,000 each in the same way. Later, the diminished incomes of newspapers compelled retrenchment. Only one New York paper continued its expenditures on the same scale to the end of the war. All others reduced them more or less. The greatest expenditure, however, by no means always ensured the greatest success.

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## Literature.

## LITERARY NOTES.

MESSRS. D. APPLETON & Co. have now just ready for publication Sir Charles Lyell's "Elements of Geology, or the Ancient Changes of the Earth and its Inhabitants, as illustrated by Geological Monuments." This is reprinted from the new sixth edition lately issued by Mr. Murray. Ten years having passed since the fifth edition was brought out, it is necessarily very much enlarged and improved, with the view of reflecting exactly the present state of the science that it teaches. The actual additions form about 150 pages, and the original name "Elements" is restored, as the volume has outgrown the dimensions of a "Manual," under which title the fifth edition appeared. It now makes a bulky volume of 800 pages, with 770 wood-cuts—Bourne's "Hand-book of the Steam Engine," a key to the author's well known "Catechism" of the same subject, containing all the rules required for the construction and management of engines, etc., with wood-cuts, tables, and examples—and the much talked of "History of the Rise and Influence of the Spirit of Rationalism in Europe," by W. E. H. Lecky, M.A. This work has just reached a second edition in England, and, as the first work of a young author, is considered to exhibit greater promise than any first literary appearance since the days of Ruskin and Buckle. Messrs. Appleton & Co. will also bring out during the fall Murray's elegant "Illustrated New Testament." Having purchased an edition for the American market, they will be able to offer it below the usual cost of importation. The embellishments (with the exception of a few historical subjects) are true and accurate views of the places they represent as they exist at the present day, not "made up" or artistically beautified, and are mostly derived from photographs or original sketches. The notes are intended to supply a plain explanatory comment for private or family reading. In typographical and pictorial execution the work may be regarded as the "high-water mark" of excellence reached in those departments.

—There is always much curiosity among the intelligent classes to know the solid rewards of literary toil, the substantial returns that successful authorship produces. In the case of the Earl of Derby's "Homer's Iliad," the noble lord supplies the public with the data necessary for ascertaining the measure and quantity of his reward. He announces his purpose of founding a scholarship in the newly established Wellington College, and says that the sum already received will enable him to endow it with £54 a year. An easy calculation, based upon the current value of money in England, shows that the amount in question must be about eleven hundred pounds. This, though not equal to the small fortune secured with so much artful management by Pope for the like labor, is considerably more than Cowper ever received for his translation of the Iliad, and it must be remembered it is derived from less than one year's sales only. An association with Homer seems indeed part of the traditional inheritance of English statesmen. Not to mention Mr. Gladstone's Homeric studies in three solid octavos, and the beautiful "Grenville" Homer, edited by the minister of that name, Matthew Arnold, in his recent "Essays on Criticism," quotes a striking instance of familiarity with the poet in the famous Earl Granville (better known as Lord Carteret, and whom Horace Walpole declared to be the most brilliant genius of the age), who applied to himself, with marked emphasis, the famous speech of Sarpedon, while completing on his death-bed the treaty of Paris, which put an end to the Seven Years' War, in 1762.

—Professor Bopp, the founder of comparative philology as a scientific study, is alive and well in his seventy-fifth year, at Berlin. His friends

trust that he will continue so until the 16th of next May. This will be the fiftieth anniversary of the day of publication of his work on Sanscrit, from whence is dated a new epoch in the science of language. A movement for a wide and general manifestation in honor of the professor on that day commenced in Berlin and is spreading to England and France. It is proposed to establish a fund for the advancement of the studies which owe so much to Professor Bopp, to maintain and annually revive the memory of their founder, or, at all events, to present to Professor Bopp, on the day mentioned, the sum so raised, leaving to him the decision of its disposal and the drawing up of the necessary regulations.

—Mr. Robert Dale Owen has undertaken to write a life of President Lincoln. It will form two volumes in small octavo of three hundred and fifty pages each, and will be issued with as much speed as the necessary attention to authorship will allow. It will probably be accepted as the standard biography of the late President. Another life by Dr. J. G. Holland is also in preparation. The latter is, however, intended for sale by canvassing agents exclusively, and will be of a more popular character. A "History of President Lincoln's Administration" is preparing by Hon. Isaac N. Arnold, of Illinois. In France at least three biographies have appeared or are in progress; the most elaborate one, by Achille Arnaud, is entitled "Abraham Lincoln, his Birth, Life, and Death, with a Sketch of the War." In Germany a full and elaborate life is announced, to meet the strong national feeling and sympathy for the man and the cause for which he died.

—The discovery of a new lake in communication with the Upper Nile, through which the river is said to flow, just made by Mr. Baker, and christened with very bad taste the "Albert Nyanza," rather complicates than settles the much vexed question of the source of that river. Everything that occurs goes to confirm the opinion of Dr. Beke, that until we are fully acquainted with the limits of the Nile basin, the extent of the region drained by its streams, and the size and direction of its tributaries, any discussion of its source must be undertaken without the true conditions of scientific certainty, and is unquestionably premature.

—In the new number of the "Westminster Review," Mr. J. S. Mill (M.P. for Westminster, as we may now write since the result of the late election) continues the masterly review of the writings and philosophy of M. Auguste Comte commenced by him in the previous number. It is chiefly occupied with the works produced in the second stage of his intellectual career—works so strangely at variance with his former writings in form and spirit that they are usually ignored by his admirers, and passed over without remark, so that they are little known out of France. Mr. Mill exhibits their faults unsparingly, but without bitterness. His general conclusion is that Comte most closely resembles Descartes and Leibnitz among philosophers, both in his excellences and extravagances. He says: "Were we to speak our whole mind, we should call him superior to them, not intrinsically, but by exertion of equal intellectual power, in a more advanced stage of human progression, but also in an age less tolerant of palpable absurdities, and to which those he has committed, if not in themselves greater, at least appear more ridiculous." It is to be feared the exactions of a metropolitan constituency will lessen Mr. Mill's opportunities for philosophical discussions, at least for some time to come.

—The approaching retirement of Mr. Antonio Panizzi from the post of principal librarian of the British Museum is announced. There are few persons whom it will be so difficult to replace worthily as a public servant—none, perhaps, to whom men of letters throughout the world owe so great obligations. When a political refugee from Italy, engaged from necessity in literary pursuits, he attracted the attention of Lord Brougham, and by his influence was placed in the position he now occupies. The narrow illiberality that would have debarred him from it as a foreigner, received a well-merited rebuke by the splendid success that has attended his exercise of its functions. His untiring energy overcame the dead weight and *vis inertia* of boards of management, trustees, etc., and for some years he has practically had uncontrolled sway in his department. Many Americans have studied under the dome of the Reading Room, that magnificent temple of science that owes its erection to his inspiration, and can testify to the liberal facilities afforded to its frequenters. This, and the library itself, now approaching to 800,000 volumes, and trebled in extent since his accession to office, are testimonials of his services that no lapse of time can obliterate.

—Among the evidences of refined taste and high artistic culture given by the late Prince Consort of England, in spite of the absorbing public calls on his time and resources, was the formation for his private study of a Raffaele collection—an assemblage of every work of art that could illustrate the genius and productions of the prince of painters. A very interesting account of this collection, and the means taken to extend it, is given in the



"Fine Art Quarterly Review." The foundation was laid by the choice Raffaele drawings in the English royal collection. Correspondence was opened with all the galleries of Europe that could contribute to the object, and photographic copies of every sketch and picture, and every known engraving that could illustrate the genius of the artist, were secured and arranged so as to illustrate its progressive development and final achievement. It is in partial fulfilment of this design that the Cartoons have been removed from the gloomy gallery built for them by William III. at Hampton Court, where they were dimly visible to sauntering holiday makers, and placed in a spacious hall at Kensington. Here they are placed on a level with the eye in the order they were intended to occupy in the chapel for which the designs were executed—each Cartoon being separated by ornamental pilasters with Raffaelesque arabesques, etc. This room is decorated with contemporary furniture and articles of vertu, as old carved Italian caskets, Tazzas of Majolica or Raffaele ware, Milanese velvet chairs and couches, etc., etc., so that these unrivalled works can now for the first time be studied with the care that they deserve. One gratifying result of the close examination that can now be given them is, that scarcely any great works of art have descended to us in so pure and genuine a state, the identical touches of the master being everywhere visible, free from repairs or restorations. An easel picture by Raffaele has also just been added to the National Gallery. It has long been known to connoisseurs as the "Garvagh Raffaele." It represents a Holy Family, and is fourteen inches wide by eleven in height. It was brought to England from the Aldobrandini Palace during the French occupation of Italy at the commencement of this century, and was sold to Lord Garvagh in 1802 for £1,500. The price just paid for it by the nation is £9,000, a rise in value almost equalling that of New York real estate.

—The New York Historical Society is making rapid progress in the accomplishment of a plan for the publication of original historical materials from its manuscript collections. This plan has some novel features. The society issues 1,000 scrip shares for twenty-five dollars each, the proceeds of which form the publication fund, and pays interest in cash on them until publication commences; after that time it guarantees to print every year an octavo volume of not less than 500 pages. Every holder of a share will be entitled to a copy, and none will be printed for sale or attainable in any other method. The Colden, Gates, Steuben, and Duer collections of papers, and many others of miscellaneous character, throwing a flood of light on the colonial and revolutionary history of the State and country, are among the sources that will contribute to the value of the series. The largest portion of the shares are taken up, and printing will shortly be commenced. The editing of the volumes will be done gratuitously by members of the society.

—Messrs. J. B. Lippincott & Co. announce for reproduction in this country a book whose enigmatical title may excite some curiosity: "Frost and Fire: Natural Engines, Tool-marks, and Chips. With Sketches taken at Home and Abroad, by a Traveller." It is a work completely *sui generis*, by a Scotchman of honored name in the Western Highlands, Mr. J. F. Campbell, of Islay. His subject is the configuration of the surface of the globe, as affected by volcanic and glacial action—the "natural engines" whose "tool-marks" and "chips" he has hunted out in most countries of the globe. Fire holds but a secondary place in his affections. Icebergs and glaciers are his idols, whose tracks he follows across the continent of Europe, from Iceland to Greece, and through the wilds of Canada and the States of the American Union. Mr. Water-ton's enthusiasm for his birds hardly equals Mr. Campbell's passion for his beloved boulders, and 120 illustrations, drawn with admirable force and spirit, depict them and the scenery where they are found in every aspect. He has even invented a shorthand way of describing a landscape by characters indicative of the forces that shaped its leading forms, so that a few cabalistic marks on the margin show to the initiated eye the "rock basins," "ancient sea terraces," "lines of denudation," etc., that make the scene dear to the geologist. Even the cover of the book offers a fac-simile of the "ice-marks on a slate rock in the street at St. John's, New Brunswick." The notes of travel bring out much quiet Scotch humor, and altogether the book is full of individuality, a quality most rare in these days of stereotyped resemblance between man and man. We trust it will be produced in all its original wealth of grotesque and exuberant illustration, and not "shorn of its beams" by a meagre reprint.

—Modern pilgrims do not wait till death has consecrated the scene and object of their pilgrimage, and in this day of locomotion no spot is so secluded as to escape the search of the hero worshipper. A recent traveller, Mr. Walter White, who has published several home tours in England, thus describes the birthplace of Alfred Tennyson in his "Eastern England, from the Thames to the Humber:" "Another descent brought me into a warmer

vale, where cots peep out from masses of wood, the road curves, and, shadowed by tall trees, a streamlet tumbles over a dam and makes a cool and cheerful murmur, and the seclusion seems complete. No prettier scene did I see in Lincolnshire. Another bend, and there is a deep lane ascending between grander trees, with a clear and gentle spring at the foot of the bank, reflecting the hart's-tongue and other ferns that grow around it. I drew out one of the ferns to carry home as a memorial of the place. It is living yet. And this is Somersby, and in this delightfully sequestered spot the poet-laureate was born." Mr. White got a cup of tea at a cottage where the woman had lived servant at the vicarage, and "remembered Master Alfred," though delicacy seems to have prevented him from any enquiries as to the youthful days of the poet. He is able, however, to testify, for the lovers of minute facts, that of

"—— the poplars four  
That stand beside my father's door,"

three "yet wave" behind the house, one has disappeared.

—Of all the contributions of American scholars and cultivators of Italian literature to the great Dante celebration at Florence, none was so elegant and appropriate as the small privately printed volume by Mr. Charles Eliot Norton, of Cambridge, "On the Original Portraits of Dante." The purpose of the tract is to prove the authenticity of a mask, as being in all probability a cast from the face of the poet after death, by comparing it with the undoubted portrait by Giotto, discovered in the frescoes of the Bargello, in 1840. Beautiful photographs of this head in its genuine state, before the reparations that destroyed its character, and of a cast from the mask, are given in various lights and positions, so as to bring out the identity of the two representations of one subject, allowing only for the alterations produced by the distinctive characteristics of youth and age. The recent discovery of Dante's remains, lately mentioned, has led to a scene so curiously at variance with our northern ideas of the solemnities that should wait upon "reverent, grave, and mighty death," and so characteristic of the southern familiarity with the urns and sepulchres of mortality, that it deserves to be chronicled. The discovery was followed by the exhibition of the remains. "Within a magnificent glass tomb, elegantly ornamented and raised on a noble dais, beneath the arches of the chapel of Bracciarforte (temporarily transformed into a most appropriate theatre for the occasion), was visible the skeleton of the immortal poet, extended on white drapery, the head slightly raised upon a pillow." To this scene are we told "devoted crowds flock with a tearful interest," previous to the transference of the remains to their former resting place.

—The serious loss to literature inflicted by accidents like that which has recently destroyed the unique library of Mr. Offor, recalls the frequency of other catastrophes equally disastrous to books. No doubt a very appreciable percentage of the existing stock of them in the world is doomed to destruction by the agencies of shipwreck, fire, and warfare, that have already to answer for the devastation of much beyond human means to replace. Even at the present day war is by no means stripped of its terrors to non-combatants, and men of letters have suffered largely by its inseparable accompaniments. The library of Wm. Gilmore Simms, amounting to 10,500 volumes, was entirely destroyed during General Sherman's march through South Carolina, and the valuable oriental library and collections of Wm. B. Hodgson (well known to *savans* by his researches in the African languages, etc.) shared the same fate in the neighborhood of Savannah: these are isolated instances that have come to our ears, but may be paralleled in most parts of the country. Of all known losses by shipwreck, the great typical one is that of the copy of Dante illustrated by marginal designs from the hand of Michael Angelo—a volume that would now be as nearly beyond price as any we can imagine. It was the property of a Florentine architect, Antonio Montanti, who shipped it with his goods at Leghorn for Civita Vecchia, when he was appointed architect to St. Peter's at Rome, in a vessel that foundered at sea. Few valuable books are now exposed to the waves of the Mediterranean in all probability. It is between Europe and America that the great commerce of literature now is carried on, and the Atlantic gathers its tribute of books as of man's lives and fortunes. A fine "first folio" Shakespeare from the library of the Pagets at Beaudesert went down in the *Arctic*, as well as some of the rarest and probably unique books on American history collected abroad, which perished with their owner. Independently of the great national calamities by fire, such as are historical and easily remembered, as the burning of Moscow, the fire of London, etc., it is likely that the greatest losses to literature have been occasioned by conflagrations at the houses of English country gentlemen, where untold wealth is often stored, unknown perhaps to any one even in the immediate neighborhood. Thus perished the invaluable collection of Col. Johnes (the translator of

Froissart) at Hafodd, the unique library of the Wynnes at Wynnstey (leaving a complete gap in Welsh history), the grand library of the Marquis of Bute at Luton, and possibly hundreds of others. There are at this moment in England four private collections of manuscripts which would, if brought together, exceed in number and value the great national manuscript library of the British Museum; each are exposed to all the casualties that every private dwelling is liable to.

—The most strictly professional work of that delightful writer, Dean Stanley—on which his fame as a scholar and divine will probably depend—is his "Commentary on the Epistles to the Corinthians," with philological notes and dissertations. It has been very scarce until the appearance of a new (third) edition, just brought out. How directly he grapples with the difficulties of the subject, in defiance of old conventionalities, may be seen in his vivid parallel of the style of the Apostle Paul with that of Thucydides and Oliver Cromwell! "In all these," he says, "there is a disproportion between thought and language, the thought straining the language till it cracks in the process—a shipwreck of grammar and logic as the sentences are whirled through the author's mind—a growth of words and thoughts out of and into each other, often to the utter entanglement of the argument which is framed out of them. In the case of St. Paul there are also peculiar forms of speech, which he finds it impossible to resist—that almost always act with disturbing force on the sentences in which they occur." Other peculiarities of his diction and rhetoric are as powerfully characterized, ending with "his sudden rise into successive ranges of flight through the various stages of spiritual life, not halting till he reaches the throne of God." The work gives the Greek text of the Epistles, a corrected translation, a paraphrase, critical notes, introductions to the Epistles, and separate dissertations on every subject of interest brought out in the teaching of the apostle.

#### EDUCATION AT THE GREAT ENGLISH PUBLIC SCHOOLS.\*

MR. ATKINSON'S valuable pamphlet is based upon the report in four folio volumes, issued in 1864, of the recent Parliamentary Commission to investigate the condition of the great English public schools. It contains in brief an abstract of the most important conclusions arrived at by the Commission in respect to the results of the favorite English academical system, with a commentary by the author full of good sense, ingenious reflection, and pointed argument, and distinguished by moderation of statement and excellence of style. It exhibits an extraordinary picture of the complete failure of the English system of academical training as a means of education, if by education be understood the proper development and discipline of the powers of the mind, not only as applied directly to intellectual pursuits, but as involved in the formation of those habits of reflection and reasoning upon which the culture of the moral faculties in great part depends.

The only mental discipline for boys in the famous public schools of England, with exceptions so slight as to be unimportant, is that which is derived from the study of Latin, Greek, and a very little mathematics. At Eton, and Westminster, and Harrow, and Winchester, and Rugby, boys pass six, eight, or ten of those years of life of most importance for the cultivation of the faculties of observation and reflection, and for the acquisition of the foundations of general knowledge, wholly employed, so far as school learning is concerned, whatever be the natural diversity of their faculties or the differences of their tastes, in the study of Latin and Greek grammar, Latin and Greek prose and verse, and the most elementary mathematics. They leave school as ignorant as they entered it, so far as direct instruction is concerned, of natural history, of physical science, of every branch of learning that has to do with the faculties of observation; and not only of these, but of political history and geography, and, as a general rule, of any of the modern languages. They have not acquired even the rudiments of what are called the practical branches of knowledge, or of those arts, like music and drawing, which are to be regarded as essential elements of a complete education. They enter the university or go out into other fields of life with their minds wholly unopened to the vast interests of science, wholly unacquainted with the charms of literature, wholly unprepared by elementary acquisitions to proceed in any studies but the three already enumerated. And this is not all. But a small proportion of the pupils acquire even in these studies thorough knowledge or facility for further progress. Knowledge has not been considered as a means of intellectual development. They have been taught unscientifically even those things in which they have been instructed. Rev. W. Hedley, tutor of University College and public examiner, says, and

his testimony is supported by that of many others equally qualified to pronounce an opinion:

"I am sorry to say that many boys come to the university from school knowing next to nothing. . . . I have sometimes had to remind my brother examiners and myself, in the final examination for B.A., that we were not at liberty to pluck for bad spelling, bad English, or worse writing. . . . Hitherto it has seemed useless for the university to enlarge her course to suit the tastes of men whose minds have never been formed at all by any methodical teaching, and who really cannot be said to have any tastes. . . . It is difficult to say what proportion of candidates for matriculation can translate a new passage of a Latin or a Greek author. At my own college, we consider such a test as much too severe: the college would be left half empty if it were insisted on. . . . Of arithmetic and mathematics few of them know anything more than the amount insisted on by the university, and many of them barely that; the extent of their knowledge not reaching beyond vulgar fractions and decimals. . . . Their acquaintance with history is very meagre, and so exceptional, that where it does exist I should be induced to attribute it more to domestic training and individual taste than to the systematic teaching of schools. Much the same may be said of geography."

This, then, is the general result of the English aristocratic system of education for boys. That the system has no good results it would be wrong to assert. It does turn out a certain number—a small proportion—of good Latin and Greek scholars. It does furnish to a few the sort and measure of intellectual training fitted to their capacities and tastes. But even of these a considerable part acquire the externals of good scholarship rather than its essence; are better fitted to detect a false quantity than to appreciate the literary and moral elements of a noble style; are mere critics and pedants rather than large-minded scholars; are good at translating trifles in Greek or Latin verse, but have acquired neither the taste for, nor the knowledge of, the glory, the beauty, and the worth of the literatures of Greece and Rome.

That there are other results of the system pursued in the great English schools besides those pertaining to the methods of instruction and the studies pursued, is no doubt true. But these results are separable from the methods and subjects of instruction, and would not be affected by changes in the course and manner of study. The direct instruction—the exclusive classical and mathematical training which is substituted for a liberal education, and misnamed by its name—is a lamentable failure.

"The crying evils," says Mr. Atkinson, "in English higher education, and the sources of its failure, are two, though very closely connected: first, that it utterly neglects the principle, patent to all who will give the least attention to the study of the human mind, that men are born into the world with the most diverse mental aptitudes, requiring, instead of one, a great variety of means for their development—of means capable of combining, and requiring to be combined, in varying ways and proportions, to suit the varying circumstances; and that, therefore, it is simply preposterous to attempt to run all minds in one mould, to fit all to the Procrustes-bed of one narrow system; and, secondly, that the system itself with which the experiment is tried is antiquated and obsolete, in that it utterly ignores the great body of modern physical science which has come into existence since it was established in the days of Laud and William of Wykeham."

The question inevitably arises, Why is such a system maintained? or what gives it force and vitality enough to maintain itself in the light of modern ideas and improved methods? The answer to one acquainted with English institutions and habits of thought is not difficult. The strength of the system lies, first, in its long traditional authority. A tradition is sacred, especially if it be embodied in an institution, to those whose rank, title, wealth, and social position are all alike founded on tradition and not on natural right. Moreover, and this is the second source of the strength of this perverted system of education, it is "a protected monopoly of the strictest kind," supported by "bounties that are almost prohibitive of any other style or quality of teaching." Fellowships, scholarships, church-livings, the lucrative masterships in the schools themselves, are the premiums offered for certain classical accomplishments. A Greek epigram is a qualification for a bishopric, and a Latin verse may secure a deanery. Dr. Moberly, late head-master of Winchester, testifies that he knew a boy repeat a whole play of Sophocles without missing a word, and adds that it secured him a fellowship—that is, a good maintenance and good social position—"the prize of a struggle," to use Dr. Moberly's own words, "which was over at fourteen, and success in which was won, in a great measure, by a hard strain on a retentive memory."

But this state of things will not last for ever. The English suffer abuses patiently and long, but at length grow weary of them, and by degrees correct them. The recommendations of the Committee, which accompany their report, all tend to moderate, gradual, but tolerably efficient reform. The rapid improvement during the past few years in middle class education, the great attention which this subject is now receiving, and the vigorous measures adopted to increase the opportunities for education of this class, will compel the aristocratic class to improve the system of aristocratic education.

\* "Classical and Scientific Studies, and the Great Schools of England: A Lecture read before the Society of Arts of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, April 6, 1865. By W. P. Atkinson. With Additions and an Appendix." Cambridge: Sever & Francis. 1865. 8vo pamphlet, pp. 117.



Mere enlightened self-interest will be the great agency in the work. The ruling class in the state, if it would retain its authority and its privileges, must be, in the largest proportion, the best educated class. An ignorant aristocracy will not be respected by an enlightened and well educated middle class. The English aristocracy have always shown their appreciation of the political axiom, that reform is better than revolution.

But how is it with our own higher school system? *Mutato nomine de te fabula narratur*. "Under a changed name the story is told of thyself," is the epigraph on Mr. Atkinson's title-page, and though he does not enter on the application of the lessons that may be derived from English experience, he allows us to infer that he thinks we have lessons to learn from it. Indeed, if we may judge from the tone of his pamphlet, he thinks that our universities, in insisting so much as they do upon classical studies as a preliminary to entrance upon the university course of instruction, compel our higher schools to give too much attention to these studies, and to require too great proficiency in them from their pupils.

"It seems to me," he says, in speaking of the reform required in the English system, "that no reform will fully meet the case that shall stop short of establishing a course of liberal education in which linguistic studies shall be represented, first, by a study of the Latin language and literature, more thorough and effective than it usually is now, inasmuch as it should be treated as the foundation of a future knowledge of the modern languages of the same family; but in which the study of Greek shall be wholly superseded by a real study of the mother tongue and these modern languages, and in which the study of physical science, begun from the earliest moment that the child's observing powers begin to be active, shall be continued in such a thorough manner as shall develop the full disciplinary power it possesses."

We do not readily understand, nor would we readily accept, Mr. Atkinson's complete exclusion of Greek from the course of school studies. If the language is ever to be known, its rudiments may best be learned in youth. Perhaps it is not well to insist upon it as a universal qualification for admission to college, but that it should at least remain as an alternative qualification we believe, and we cannot believe that Mr. Atkinson himself would differ from us in this opinion. Very few of those who learn to read Greek keep up their knowledge in after years, but it is not saying too much to assert that not one of those who does keep it up regrets its acquisition or would willingly exchange it for the knowledge of any other language.

We have no fear that too much attention to the classics is likely to be exacted in our colleges and schools. They are not close monopolies, or for one class, like those in England the condition of which is so forcibly presented by Mr. Atkinson. On the contrary, they are essentially popular institutions, and subject to the influences of popular opinion. They have no uniform, compulsory system; a truly liberal spirit pervades them; and even our best endowed and most independent colleges and universities give constant and satisfactory proof of the disposition of those who control them to keep them at a level with the wants and needs of the community, and to make them represent in their systems of instruction the most enlightened and sensible thought of the times. If the study of the classics is still insisted upon in them, it is because they estimate the true importance of that study in any genuinely liberal system of education, and because they recognize that the tendency of modern and especially of American civilization is to give undue importance to mathematical and physical science as a means of education, because of the practical utility of these branches of knowledge, and of the material advantages which may result from acquaintance with them.

A true system of education, such a system as we believe is developing here, will embrace all branches of knowledge as its instruments, giving undue prominence to none. It will endeavor to draw out the best powers of each individual, although this must in a great measure be done by methods determined mainly by the capacities of the mass. It will take into account the various elements in the education of the child outside of the academic instruction; and in a community where newspapers abound, where lectures are popular, where the rapid growth of wealth leads towards materialism, where scientific pursuits are favored because of their application to the arts of life and of money-making, where there is a general even if not well cultivated activity of the observing faculties, and where the higher and purely intellectual pursuits are but little followed or honored, it will do its part towards preserving the balance between the spiritual and material elements of life, by insisting on those studies which bring in no return of pecuniary gain, but which widen human sympathies, refine taste, cultivate imagination, discipline the soul as well as the mind, and enlarge man's conception of himself and of his destiny, by bringing him into communion with the spirits of men long dead, and creating in him a sense of the historic continuity and perpetuity of the race, and of the intimate responsibility and relation of every generation, however remote, to those which succeed it upon earth.

Mr. Atkinson's pamphlet should be widely read. It is eminently read-

ble, and, as we have already said, of uncommon excellence both in style and thought. It is of not less interest incidentally to the student of the political and social conditions of England than to those readers most directly concerned with its special subject.

## PRINCE ADAM CZARTORYSKI AND ALEXANDER I. OF RUSSIA.\*

WHATEVER we may think of the influence of the Czartoryski family in general, and of that of the late Prince Adam in particular, upon the destinies of Poland, it must be owned by every candid reader of history that that nobleman—whose birth preceded the first partition of his unhappy country, and whose death took place so little before its last struggle for independence, the patriot warrior of 1792, the adviser of Alexander in the eventful period of 1805-6, the curator of the University of Wilna down to 1823, the President of the Polish Revolutionary Government in 1831, the exiled magnate who so eagerly declared his adhesion to the democratic movement of 1846, the nonagenarian of the Hotel Lambert, who had never ceased to be a protector of the needy and a patron of the learned—forms not only an important but a highly imposing figure in the modern annals of his people.

His life may be divided into two equal parts, the first of which embraces his connection with Alexander, almost down to the death of the latter in 1825; and the other, the chequered period in which he is but a Pole, by wealth, authority, patriotism, and munificence almost the foremost in peace, in the revolutionary tempest, and in exile. A collection of (or, probably, a selection from) his correspondence with his Russian imperial friend, recently published by his son Prince Ladislas, allows us a clear insight into the personal and political relation of the first period; and through that part of his career, as illumined by his writings, we purpose following him with our reader, without assuming to fill up the chasms, to guess at what may be intentionally omitted, to judge as a critic, or to write history. Candor is evidently one of the features of the character before us, and as history, though often severe in its strictures on the political course of the Czartoryskis, happily in no point contradicts the pages of that correspondence, we can without hesitation follow its guidance.

When the battle of Maciejowice was fought, and Kosciuszko became a captive of the Russians, our Czartoryski, together with his brother, was carried as a hostage to the court of St. Petersburg. A young man of high culture, developed at the schools of France and Great Britain, he was introduced by the old Empress Catherine II. into the society of her favorite grandson Alexander. This youthful prince, who was destined to ascend the throne of the czars over the mangled corpse of his always eccentric and wild, and frequently ferocious, father, Paul, was of a character and disposition diametrically opposite—mild and calm, emotional and addicted to romantic musings—a Telemachus who lacked only manliness and truth to be capable of real greatness.

We find them together, in one of the early days of the spring of 1796, in the vast and beautiful garden of the Taurida Palace, traversing its walks for hours. The grand duke is charming; the flight of his ideas forms the most extraordinary contrast with his position and his future. He expresses his warm sympathy with the misfortunes and fortitude of the exiled brothers, the esteem and confidence he bears them, and the necessity he feels of being known to them fully in his real character; his condemnation of the policy of the empress, of the ideas and doctrines that rule the court; his grief on the fall of Poland; his admiration of Kosciuszko, whose cause was that of justice and humanity; his detestation of despotism in all its forms; his love for liberty, the inalienable right of all men; his lively interest in the French Republic in spite of its excesses; and his veneration for his republican teacher, the virtuous Swiss, La Harpe.

The hostage listens with delight, with gratitude and hope. He can hardly believe his ears. "Is it not miraculous," he thinks, "that in an atmosphere and surroundings like these such noble thoughts, such high virtues, can spring forth?" Himself, he writes later, was then "young, full of exalted ideas and sentiments, not easily astonished by extraordinary things, and inclined to believe what appeared great or virtuous." Though the son of the wealthiest family of Polish aristocrats, he was deeply imbued with the liberal ideas of the age, for which his friends had labored and bled; the French Reign of Terror itself had not cooled his ardor for liberty; the French Republic was

\* "Alexandre Ier et le Prince Czartoryski. Correspondance particulière et conversations, 1801-1823. Publiées par le Prince Ladislas Czartoryski. Avec une introduction par Charles de Mazade." Paris, 1865.

["Alexander I. and Prince Czartoryski. Private Correspondence and Conversations, 1801-1823. Published by Prince Ladislas Czartoryski. With an Introduction by Charles de Mazade."] Paris, 1865.



then seemingly marching towards a future of boundless prosperity and glory; its brightest period, that of 1796-7, had begun; "the empire had not yet poured its icy cold over the warmest partisans of the revolution." Strange words from the lips of a Czartoryski, of him who one day will see the democrats of his country, the Lelewels and the Microslawskis, arrayed in bitter hostility against him!

Could Czartoryski resist the temptation of such advances, full of promise, as they were, for Poland as well as for himself? He was convinced of their sincerity, and the Polish exile and the future czar formed a friendship which only the death of the latter could entirely sever, though its warmth was, perhaps, gradually diminished by age and circumstances. An accident brought it about—fate worked against it. Alexander was to rule the Russian empire—Adam would not cease to be a Pole. They loved and esteemed, their countries hated each other.

Catherine died soon after, and her son Paul succeeded her. The influence of Czartoryski upon the crown-prince appeared to him pernicious, and the exile was again exiled, being sent as ambassador to the court of Sardinia—a kingdom which at that time had ceased to exist. He profited by the circumstance, devoting himself to historical studies in Rome. But scarcely was Alexander placed upon the throne, in March, 1801, when he recalled him. Prince Adam, whose fatherland had been entirely annihilated by its third partition, hastened to join his friend, from whose liberalism and magnanimity he hoped for its restoration. Two years later he became his minister of foreign affairs.

The devotion of the Polish emigrants to the cause of France had been cruelly betrayed by Bonaparte. The bones of hundreds of Polish legionaries who had gallantly fought under his banners in Italy now lay scattered among the swamps of St. Domingo. The assassination of the Duc d'Enghien and the final overthrow of the French Republic made both Alexander and his friend decidedly hostile to the usurper. Czartoryski counselled an alliance with England and Austria, and bold measures against Prussia, should she refuse to join it. The restoration of his country was involved in the scheme. Prussia was to be compelled to give up her part of the Polish prey, Austria to be compensated for hers, and Alexander to combine the whole of ancient Poland into one kingdom, united only in his person with Russia. But this prince, whom the circumstances of his education made fatally inclined to hesitation, indecision, and double-dealing, was altogether incapable of a straightforward and bold course of policy, either in war or in peace.

Without compelling Prussia to join him or persuading the Poles to aid him, he rushed headlong with Austria into the war of 1805, fought the battle of Austerlitz, and immediately after pusillanimously abandoned his ally. The two letters in which Czartoryski asked for his discharge from office subsequently to these events are models of eloquent persuasion as well as of manly frankness. He openly tells the emperor that his vacillation and indecision; his want of foresight, of confidence in the measures adopted, and of consistency in carrying them through; his readiness to enter into propositions with the conviction of their impracticability, coupled with his inability, from weakness, to resist their execution; his misplaced friendship for the King of Prussia, who ought never in the eyes of a monarch to have represented a person, but a kingdom; his presumption personally to influence the decisions of the councils of war, and to hamper by his presence in the camp and on the battle-field the movements and check the decision of commanders more experienced and bold than himself; his sudden departure from the army after the defeat, which was almost a signal for desertion; and many other mistakes committed by himself, were the real causes of the disasters of the campaign. All this is told in the language of sincere friendship, whose aim it is to instruct but not to wound, and interwoven with lessons of statesmanship which reflect no little credit upon the sagacity of the adviser. It is equally creditable to the czar to have listened with composure to the undisguised reproaches of his subject, and to have preserved the friend while parting with the minister.

The campaign of 1807, in which Alexander took part, and with no better success, on the side of Prussia, was followed by the creation of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, which was a restoration of a part of Poland, a measure by which Napoleon achieved for himself what Alexander was so often advised to do by Czartoryski. The latter was now without political employment, but continued to fulfil with patriotic zeal the duties of curator of the University of Wilna, which he had entered upon in 1803. On this neutral field of action he was able to render immense service to his nation without sacrificing his friendship to Alexander. He took no part in the warlike events of 1809, when his imperial friend sided with Napoleon. One of the results was the aggrandizement of the Grand Duchy. But mightier events seemed now preparing. A decisive conflict between the two great powers

of the Continent—France and Russia—was becoming unavoidable. Prince Adam, who had never ceased to plead for his country, and again and again urged Alexander to assume the initiative in its complete restoration, but in vain, could not but be perplexed in the extreme by his delicate position. The gulf between him and the czar was growing wider the more the interests of Poland and Napoleon seemed to coalesce. The idea of an independent Poland now became alarming to Alexander, and Czartoryski felt that the moment would soon come when even a shadow of a political connection with him would be a stigma on his patriotism.

"In my opinion," he told the emperor, speaking of the Grand Duchy, "a man who is not attached to his fatherland is a despicable creature. To deny one's faith, one's parents, or one's country, is equally odious in my eyes. . . . Besides, I have my brother, my sister, all my family, in that new country, and I must confess to your majesty that this is one of the reasons which makes me desirous of severing all connection with affairs here. I cannot be satisfied with being pure, right, and sincere in my actions; I must be so also in my sentiments and thoughts. . . . My first aim is to preserve my self-esteem; the next, to preserve the esteem of those whom I love and honor."

Alexander refused to allow him to leave his service definitively. But it was less friendship that inspired his gracious refusal than the fear of losing the prestige in the eyes of his Polish subjects which the allegiance of Czartoryski cast upon his rule. How different did he already then appear to the Pole from the Alexander of the Taurida Palace garden. The perils of a French war were continually looming before his eyes; and in order to avert them when already approaching, he induced Czartoryski to sound the intentions of his compatriots by promises of a semi-independence under his sceptre. The attempt, as could be foreseen, proved futile. The Poles were full of enthusiasm for Napoleon, and it was from him that they expected the regeneration of their country.

And soon his eagles again took their flight eastward. The campaign of 1812, his "second Polish war," was begun. A Polish Diet was assembled, and this was presided over by Prince Adam Casimir, the father of our Czartoryski. The latter could hesitate no longer. Lithuania itself, the province in which he lived, was evacuated by the Russians; he was again *de facto*, as well as *de jure*, a citizen of Poland. In a fine and touching letter he announces to Alexander his return to his native allegiance, but still begs to be voluntarily discharged. He receives no answer. He writes again and again—in vain. In the meanwhile, the whole of the situation is reversed by the great catastrophe which overtakes the French grand army in Russia.

A few more months, and two-thirds of ancient Poland are under the sway of Alexander. The wonderful events of that time have again exalted the spirit of that monarch, while plunging his thoughts into the depths of mystic revery. He yearns to become the benefactor of his peoples, of mankind. He remembers his youthful vows for the regeneration of Poland; he recalls his Polish friend. Czartoryski works for him in Poland, accompanies him through Germany, is at his side during the deliberations of the Congress of Vienna. Will Poland be regenerated? No. Alexander is more feeble than magnanimous. The interests of the Austrian and Prussian Governments, the prejudices of the Russian people, struggle against his better will, and prevail. A small part only of the former Polish provinces, consisting chiefly of the territories of the Grand Duchy of Warsaw, is erected into a nominal Polish kingdom, to be united with Russia and endowed with a sufficiently liberal constitution.

None of the letters before us show that Czartoryski at any time enjoyed this partial restoration of his country. Several of them are devoted to exposures of infringements on the new constitution, and of shocking abuses committed by the brother of the czar, the Grand Duke Constantine, who, commander-in-chief of the Polish army, was the virtual governor of Poland while the nominal one, the old Polish General Zajonczenko, as the writer has so often reason to observe with bitterness, was unable, from infirmity of body and mind, to oppose the arbitrary will of the czarevitch. Czartoryski speaks with his old frankness, still in the tone of a friend. He sends warning after warning. He clearly foresees and foretells that such a condition of affairs can be productive of no good. He urges the recall of the grand duke. He prays for it. His warnings, his prayers, remain unheeded. Evidently the czar has become inaccessible to the influence of Polish advice, of Polish friendship. The mysticism of Mme. Krüdener, the diplomacy of Metternich, the insinuations of old-Russian surroundings, carry him in a direction opposite to that of sincere constitutionalism and Polish autonomy. The spirit of Poland moves one way, that of czarism the other. No Czartoryski will prevent a collision. Even the University of Wilna becomes exposed to the persecution of the Government. Czartoryski resigns his curatorship in 1823.

Two years later Alexander dies at Taganrog, tired of reign and of life.

## A MELANCHOLY POET.\*

"I know the critics shall be kind at last,"

says or sings Mr. Dorgan, and we will be kind now, for there can be no doubt that he has suffered genuine pain in writing many of his verses, and we have no heart to add to his sorrow. Mr. Dorgan, though a ready versifier, is not one of the mob who write with ease. His poems are the expression of his unrest, or his discomfort, or his remorse, or his despair. He is always in agony or in tears. In his very first poem his heart after sobbing, and "shaking the panting stars," and lying in dungeons, falls into "agonies of ultimate despair." A little after, in a succeeding poem, his heart is old and cold, and his spirit beats its bars, and trembles for the happy stars which his heart had just before been shaking. And in one of the very last poems in the volume we regret to find that his soul is still beating its bars, having meanwhile broken its pinions, and blooded its hands.

Mr. Dorgan is often naturally in tears; he has very troubled sleep, he complains of feverishness, and both life and death, he declares, are curses and accurs. He almost wishes some one would bring him poison. Nature does not solace him, for the forest is haunted by ghastly shapes, and the sea either hisses like a snake or is dead, and the night is dead, and the moon is drowning. Everything, in fine, is very disagreeable to him. We truly pity him, for

"Doom and desolation, and of hell  
The anguish, wheresoe'er he turns, are nigh."

It is not in jest, it is in all seriousness, that we say we pity Mr. Dorgan. Nor he is a man capable of doing better than thus to devote himself to the expression of his morbid feelings, and of a sickly melancholy which he mistakes for a "divine despair." The volume of his poems gives indications of his possessing the poetic faculty to a degree that would enable him to write poems that should be read and prized, if he would refuse to dwell on himself, his real or fancied woes, and would strive after that simplicity of feeling and expression which some strains of his verse afford evidence of his capacity to attain.

If Mr. Dorgan be a very young man, youth and inexperience of life afford some excuse for the faults of his work, and strengthen our hopes that he may grow out of his present passion for revealing himself in his forlornness and weakness, and produce verse that shall be strong with the vigor of self-restraint and health. There are better things for one's self and for one's readers than to tell the world, in the eagerness and self-absorption of youth, of one's own morbid conditions. It is the hardest lesson for a young poet to learn, that however important and interesting the study and expression of his morbid feelings may be to himself, they are of very little consequence to the public. The subjective school of poets, even though it includes some great names, is not the school of the highest masters of the divine art. The greatest poets are the most reserved; they recognize the sanctity of their own feeling; they shrink from self-exposure; they honor the modesty of their souls. Moreover, a man of genuine manliness, whether poet or not, is averse to showing or indulging his own weakness. Strength is the foundation on which genuine excellence of character or of work must rest. If a man be weak, let him not parade his weakness, but let him discipline himself in quiet to overcome it.

Mr. Dorgan may find our criticism harsh and hard, but it is, as we began by saying, truly kind. Even in his poorest pieces, even in those too frequent poems in which he strives to be intense and falls into the manner of Mr. Alexander Smith, carrying what Ruskin calls the pathetic fallacy to a great excess, or in those in which he most displays his sickly fancies and humors, there is often an element of such true poetry as to make his faults seem the worse by comparison. He has tenderness, sweetness, grace, and fancy, and that he has manly strength enough to give promise of writing well hereafter, the following striking poem witness to our readers:

## MENE! MENE!

Speak not to me of power that builds its throne  
On outraged rights; for it shall pass away;  
Yea, though its empire stretch from zone to zone,  
And bathe in endless day.

Even when the mirth is loudest shall the wine  
Grow bitter, and the shivered wine-cup fall;  
For in that hour shall come the Hand Divine  
And write upon the wall.

Weep, if thou wilt, sad seer! thy land's decay;  
Weep, if thou wilt, the hopes that shall expire;  
Weep, if thou wilt, the wearisome delay  
Of earth's august desire.

But weep not ever-during Truth as fled,  
Though deserts howl where once her temples rose;  
Nor weep for Freedom, dreaming she is dead,  
Fallen amidst her foes.

For God remains alway; and to the Truth  
Shall incense stream from many a grander fane;  
And, in the blinding glory of her youth,  
Freedom shall rise again.

## ANTI-SLAVERY MEASURES IN CONGRESS.\*

THE framers of the Constitution of the United States did not dream that the compromises with slavery, which they so reluctantly consented to incorporate in that instrument, enclosed the seeds of the wickedest and bloodiest civil war that the world has ever seen. Believing a union of the States indispensable to the national life, and therefore a paramount necessity, they were too easily persuaded that, for the sake of achieving so great a good, they might safely make terms with the supporters of a system which they acknowledged to be inconsistent with republican principles and a blot upon the national character, but which they thought was sure of extinction at no very distant day. But the attempt of a nation to shield with the forms of law an institution in flagrant antagonism with its highest professions, and with the principles of justice and humanity, is alike impious and demoralizing, and, if long persisted in, is sure to undermine the foundations of social order and public security.

In our country the bitter fruits of national injustice and oppression were apparent at an early day. From 1789 to 1861—a period of more than seventy years—the Southern lords of the lash, through the concessions made to them in the Constitution, were almost as much masters of the general Government as of the slaves on their plantations. Their property in human flesh, under a vicious and anti-republican rule of representation, increased their political power to such an extent that, by acting always as a unit, and adroitly taking advantage of party divisions at the North, they were able, from the very beginning, to control the legislation of the country for the support and perpetuity of their hateful system. With the exception of the ordinance by which slavery was excluded from the Northwest Territory, and the act of 1808 abolishing the foreign slave trade, the records of Congress from 1789 to 1861 exhibit no act unfriendly to the system, but many acts calculated and designed to give it strength and protection. The Constitution, according to the highest judicial authority, conferred upon the general Government no power to interfere with slavery in the States; and so watchful were the guardians of the system, and so imperious in their demands in its behoof, that they were always able to prevent the adoption by Congress of even constitutional measures that were likely to expose it to the slightest peril. Subserviency to the slave power became the fixed habit of politicians and parties at the North, inasmuch that the petitions of the people for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia, and of the slave trade between the States—measures admitted by eminent statesmen of all parties to be within the constitutional prerogatives of Congress—were contemptuously laid upon the table, at the moment of presentation, without debate or reference. Many of our readers are old enough to remember the contest so valorously waged by John Quincy Adams, nearly thirty years ago, in support of the people's "right of petition," and the insolent attempt of the cohorts of slavery to expel him from the House for simply enquiring of the Speaker if it would be in order to present a petition purporting to be signed by slaves. That simple question so provoked the rage and fury of the Southern members that they threatened to break up the Government if a way could not be found of putting a stop to anti-slavery agitation at the North. The House was, for days, a scene of unparalleled excitement and disorder, and there were fears in some quarters of the flow of blood upon the floor.

Mr. Wilson's book records another and a brighter chapter in the history of our country. The rebellion of 1860-61 swept away in a moment the constitutional restrictions by which slavery had been so long protected, and the withdrawal of the Southern senators and representatives afforded an opportunity to the Thirty-seventh and Thirty-eighth Congresses to expunge from the statute book the whole series of measures designed to strengthen and perpetuate slavery, and to propose to the Legislatures of the several States an amendment to the Constitution abolishing and for ever prohibiting it on every part of the American soil. Nothing could better illustrate the power which slavery had acquired over the Government than the hesitation of an anti-slavery Congress to undertake this work of expurgation and reform. The habit of regarding the system as beyond the jurisdiction of the national Government was so strong that members found it hard to believe, at first, that the old limitations were removed, and that they were actually at liberty to legislate in accordance with the principles of impartial and universal liberty. It took four years to do the work which might and ought to have been done in a single month. But the work, thank God! is done at last. The statute book

\* "Studies by John A. Dorgan. Second edition." Philadelphia: C. H. Marot. 1864 12mo, pp. 223.

"History of the Anti-Slavery Measures of the Thirty-seventh and Thirty-eighth United States Congresses, 1861-5. By Henry Wilson." Boston: Walker, Fuller & Co.



of the United States is no longer defiled by a single line or word supporting or tolerating slavery, and measures have been adopted by the highest legislative authority to secure the complete extirpation of the cruel and bloody system.

We venture to affirm that no other legislative body ever adopted, in the short period of four years, a series of measures so important in themselves and of such wide-reaching beneficence as those of which Mr. Wilson has given us the history in this volume. The men to whose unyielding persistency and devotion we owe these grand measures have claims upon the gratitude of their countrymen no whit inferior to those of the men who led our armies in the bloody conflict with treason and rebellion. But for these measures, indeed, our victories in the field would be of little worth.

The preparation of this volume required much patient labor and no common degree of judgment and discrimination. It is divided into twenty-six chapters, each one giving us the history of a distinct measure, from the moment of its introduction to its final passage in either House. The amendments adopted or rejected are carefully stated; and the spirit and substance of the debates impartially set forth, so far as possible, in the very words of the speakers themselves. The narrative, unencumbered by needless details, embraces all that the general reader will care to learn, and it is far from being dry or dull. In preparing it, Mr. Wilson has added another to his many claims upon the gratitude of a nation redeemed from the crime and curse of slavery.

### CURRENT LITERATURE.

*Sybil: A Tragedy, in Five Acts.* By John Savage. (James B. Kirker, New York.)—The incidents of this drama, we are told in the preface, so closely resembled the actual history of a well known Kentuckian, that the play was for a time interdicted at Louisville. The plot, which is ingenious enough, the action, and the catastrophe are in fact truly Southern, and calculated to delight the community in which the characters would be at home. We have a seducer, duellist, and unscrupulous politician in Wolfe; in Sybil, his victim, who practises target-shooting in the spirit of Miss Mary Harris, until, being pressed by the suit of Clifden, she yields to him as an avenger rather than a lover. Chance favors—the author and the Southern public would say compels—the vicarious execution of her bloody purpose; and if Sybil had been familiar with the enlightened usage of Southern society, she would have survived her husband's trial, in the perfect assurance of his acquittal. The literary merit of the tragedy is exceedingly slight. The heroic vein of discourse is interrupted absurdly by commonplace conversation, which would seem to defy the best effort of the actor to relieve it of flatness. For all that, we can see that "Sybil" has qualities which fit it for successful representation, and that the "moral" it contains will be applauded nowhere more enthusiastically than among those who are depraved enough to commit the crimes against nature which the dramatist condemns, and that against social order which he approves. This is not different from the phenomenon that may be witnessed at any theatre whose votaries are treated to "Jack Sheppard," "Paul Clifford," and the like sensational performances. The pit, which is the demonstrative friend of virtue and innocence, dissolves into the rabble that feeds the police courts. There are nations which exhibit the same inconsistency. One would think that the English code and people were peculiarly humane in their respect for womankind if he accepted the conclusion of Blackstone—"So great a favorite is the female sex of the laws of England"—or the *mot* (not given in the play) of a stage supernumerary—"And allow me to add that him as lifts his arm, except in kindness, against a woman, is unworthy the name of a Briton."

*The Jest-Book: the Choicest Anecdotes and Sayings.* Selected and arranged by Mark Lemon. (Cambridge: Sever & Francis, 1865.)—This book might be called more appropriately, and with some saving of words, "Joe Miller, edited by Mark Lemon." The collection of anecdotes and jokes is large, and, though it undoubtedly contains the "choicest," it also contains a great many very bad ones, which Mr. Lemon might have judiciously omitted. There are some dozen that it was a shame ever to set afloat, and which a professional joker, like the compiler, ought to have had too much respect for his calling to put into a permanent shape. The sense of humor a century ago was not so nice as it is now, and people laughed at a great many things at which they will never laugh again. Still Mr. Lemon has done good service in rescuing several good modern jests from oblivion, in old newspapers and little read memoirs, and many more have now for the first time been transferred from common room and mess-table gossip into print.

*The Cottage Library.* (Bunce & Huntington, New York.)—The numbers of this series thus far issued are: "Home Ballads, by Our Home Poets," "The Song of the Shirt," and other of the poems of Thomas Hood, "Under Green Leaves," a book of rural poetry, edited by Richard Henry Stoddard. The last-named collection is almost exclusively from English authors, with a liberal representation of the oldest and best. The publishers aim at obtaining a popular circulation for these volumes, and have shown good judgment in determining their size and style. The price they ask would not be dear except that it ought to purchase much better workmanship. The people have a right to all that their hard-earned money can fairly claim as an equivalent. A little more pains would have produced much better typography, and have given their proper meaning to the engravings, which show slovenly printing. No apology of haste can be offered in works of this character. It

is inexcusable that the frontispiece of No. 3 should deface the title-page by being bound up with it before the ink was dry.

*A Smaller History of Rome.* By William Smith, LL.D. (Harper & Brothers, New York.)—The old and standard work of which this is an epitome is well enough known. Mr. Eugene Lawrence has continued the narrative from the establishment of the empire to its fall in 476. There is a profusion of illustrations, but not too great for the youth whom they will serve. The index is incomplete, as one may see by turning to the title *Vespasian*. The colosseum, however, is duly catalogued.

*The Culture of the Observing Faculties in the Family and the School.* By Warren Burton. (Harper & Brothers, New York.)—In the reaction against our present system of instruction from primary schools up to and including colleges, this little book bears a useful if an humble and unpretentious part. Its special aim is to set forth the advantages of object-teaching over the discipline of words and rules, and to propitiate for the young a kind of training which shall call into activity the senses by which all knowledge enters the understanding. Nature and natural operations—the field, the sky, the wood; dew, rain, and snow; the flying bird and distant mountain; the insect and the quadruped—whatever appeals to the perception of color, size, shape, position, weight, number, time, texture, taste, sound, or smell—are all impressed as educators of the growing boy or girl. When we add that Mr. Burton furnishes examples of the mode in which tuition of this sort may be disguised as play, and invested with all the attractiveness of childish amusements, we shall have indicated the scope of his work. His hints will profit all who have the charge of youth, or influence immediately their bringing up.

*Our Great Captains. Grant, Sherman, Thomas, Sheridan, and Farragut.* (Charles B. Richardson, New York.)—We would not call this a catch-penny publication, yet we apprehend it to have sprung from a shrewd regard to the general curiosity of the hour, rather than from a conscientious desire to extend the domain of critical biography or to rear an enduring monument to the military genius and patriotism of its five justly famous subjects. The proof of this suspicion lies in the fact that the book was in type before the operations of the war had culminated in the *coup de grace* of the rebellion, and therefore is deficient in those latter exploits which throw new light upon the character of Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan at least. Other marks of haste are not wanting: the paper is inferior, the portraits moderately faithful, the compilation—though it doubtless cost labor and trouble—no whit better than that which is made for the daily press or monthly magazines, nor more trustworthy. For instance, Sherman is said (p. 97) to have declared two hundred thousand men necessary for a forward movement in his department, in the fall of 1861. The public has just learned from the general's own lips that he only asked for sixty thousand, but added that the larger number would be needed before the South could be subjugated. Perhaps two hundred would have sufficed for this business if he could have obtained his sixty.

### BOOKS RECEIVED.

WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE. By His Eminence Cardinal Wiseman. Patrick Donahoe, Boston.

THE GREAT VICTORY: ITS COST AND ITS VALUE. An Address by Hon. M. Russell Thayer.—PROCEEDINGS OF THE UNION LEAGUE OF PHILADELPHIA. July 4, 1865. Oration, by Charles Gibbons. King & Baird, Philadelphia.

"UNDER GREEN LEAVES." A Book of Rural Poems. Edited by Richard Henry Stoddard. Bunce & Huntington, New York.

A BUSINESS MAN'S VIEWS OF PUBLIC MATTERS. By Sinclair Tousey. American News Company, New York.

CAMPS AND PRISONS. Twenty Months in the Department of the Gulf. By A. J. H. Duganne. J. P. Robens, New York.

AN EXAMINATION OF SIR WILLIAM HAMILTON'S PHILOSOPHY. By John Stuart Mill. Two vols. William V. Spencer, Boston. Sheldon & Co., New York.

ARGUMENT OF JOHN A. BINGHAM, Special Judge-Advocate in the Trial of the Conspirators for the Assassination of President Lincoln. Washington.

### Science.

#### DISCOVERIES AND INVENTIONS.

QUITE marvellous results have lately been noted from the use of ice applied to the spinal nerves. Its frequent application in some severe cases of apoplexy has relieved the patients. It is applied to the lumbar plexus of nerves over the spine, alternated with hot water to the feet. A case of undoubted hydrophobia has been cured by following that treatment. The patient was bound to the bed, face downward, and a thorough wet cupping from the head down the whole length of the spine, followed with ice applications for two or three days uninterruptedly. Pulse and breathing became quiet, pains gradually left him, and complete recovery was the result. In the French hospitals the ice treatment, in cases of nervous debility, paralysis of the motor nerves, prolapsus uteri, convulsions from teething, and puerperal convulsions, has been successful without a drop of medicine. The great secret of this mode of treatment consists in using the ice long enough to get its tonic effects only, which is a nice point, and requires great care from the attendant, as short applications of ice are powerfully neuro-tonic, while its too lengthy application debilitates the patient and



does more harm than good. In diphtheria some of the happiest cures have been effected by allowing or compelling the patient to eat ice continually, and use stimulating applications like mustard or capsicum to the neck.

—A chemist has lately been making gas from the gases of the sewers, which is said to be equal to coal gas. His invention consists in pumping the sewer gas into a receiver, and passing it thence through naphtha into the streets—the fixed gas of the sewers retaining the naphtha vapor sufficiently to carburet it. *Nous verrons.*

—To produce grapes without seeds, early in the spring or late in the fall make a slit in the vine, open and take out the pith, and put some putty in place of the removed pith, close the opening, and bind up with some surgeon's adhesive plaster to exclude the air.

—There are hundreds of oil wells or dry holes in the oil regions of no use but to give éclat to some flaming prospectus of companies just formed. We should like to have some company put down a few inches of two inch rope of gun-cotton attached to a battery and explode it. If that didn't reach the vein, no "rimmers" would, on which so much money has been expended. A charge of powder was tried once with fair success, but too small a charge.

—Mildew on grape vines may be effectually removed and prevented by sulphur. The powdered sulphur may be blown on the vines with a rubber syringe. This kind of syringe may be found at any drug store.

—Wheat and barley or different kinds of wheat may be amalgamated in the following manner: Take a hollow glass tube with the inside about the size of a pipe stem, not large enough for two stalks of the wheat to grow separately. Put the two varieties of grain to be amalgamated in the bottom of the tube, which should be filled with soil; stick the tube in the ground; the two grains of wheat or barley will sprout, the roots going downwards; the stalks of each compressed into one by the smallness of the tube will grow upwards out of the tube as one stalk and one kind of grain, differing from the parent seeds and possessing properties of both. This is one way of making new seed wheat.

—A beautiful red ink is made as follows: One-fourth ounce of aniline red from petroleum and coal oil, dissolved in one ounce of alcohol. This is to be added to one gallon of water with four ounces of gum-arabic.

—Polish blacking from petroleum and its products: One pound of bone-black powdered, one pound of molasses, one-quarter pound of the waste sulphuric acid from refineries, and one and a half pounds of residuum of petroleum. Mix.

## Fine Arts.

### SOMETHING ABOUT MONUMENTS.

LET us assume that about one-half of the memorial buildings which it is now proposed to erect within the United States will be built during the next two or three years. It appears, then, that many American cities and villages, now somewhat bare of other ornament than wayside trees, will either be adorned by good buildings or disfigured by very bad ones, and that many cemeteries will either gain their first good monuments or be more than ever burdened by those which are poor and tame. For it is difficult to build a monument of negative merit. Such buildings, as they have no utilitarian character, must be truly beautiful, or they are ugly and hurtful; they cannot be respectably because appropriately designed; like statues, they must be noble, or they are worthless. And there is a necessity, similar and almost as positive, of great artistic excellence in those buildings which unite a practical use with their monumental purpose.

It will be well, therefore, if those who intend to give money or time to build monuments will give a little thought on the subject as well. We Americans are not so sure of ourselves in artistic enterprises that we can afford to omit the common precaution of thinking about the work we mean to do. Good monuments are not so plenty anywhere in the world that habit has grown to be second nature, and that monuments in the future will somehow be good also. But, in both these cases, the converse is true. Of thousands of sepulchral and commemorative monuments built during the last three hundred years in Europe, statues, triumphal arches, columns, temples, towers, obelisks, scarce one in a thousand is good. Out of hundreds of architectural enterprises brought to some conclusion in America, scarce one in a hundred has been even reasonably successful. There is no undertaking for which most people in the United States are less ready than this of building the monuments which they earnestly desire to build—monuments to their townsmen, college-mates, or associates, who have fallen in

the war—monuments to the more celebrated of our military heroes—monuments to the honored memory of our dead President.

Peculiar difficulties will surround and hinder these undertakings, because nearly all these proposed memorials will be built, if at all, by associations; few by private persons. When a gentleman of average intelligence wishes to erect a monument to his brother or friend, there is a reasonable chance that he will employ an architect or sculptor of reputation and professional ambition, even if not of the first artistic skill, and so get a memorial that neither artist nor employer need be ashamed of. But there is much less chance of this in the case of action by a community or association. If a city or society employ an artist, without experimenting with a "competition," they very seldom select the best or even one among the best of the artists within their reach; political influence, private friendship, personal popularity, accidental availability, or temporary popular favor, always interfere to govern the choice. If they resort to competition the result is not practically different; for, supposing the most absolutely fair and careful consideration by the judges of the submitted designs, and supposing the submission of a great number of good designs, what likelihood is there that the judges are fit to judge? How many committees of management, or boards of trustees, or building committees with power, contain each a majority of men who understand the complex and many-sided art of ornamental architecture? How many persons are there in the land, not professed architects or sculptors, who can select the best among twenty or ten designs, each design illustrated only by formal and technical drawings, or by these aided by a fancifully colored and shaded "perspective view" of a building which it is proposed to erect? It is not enough to have "good taste"—to have a correct natural feeling for beauty of form, or to be accustomed to drawings. No man is at all fit to pick out one design among many, unless he has some knowledge of what has been and of what can be done in actual marble, stone, and bronze. There is apt to be a gentleman on every committee who has travelled in Europe, and who gets great credit for knowledge and judgment, and great influence over his colleagues on that account. But that gentleman must give proof of a better than guide-book knowledge of what he has seen, and of a less confused memory than most travellers bring home, and of having bought photographs of the best buildings instead of those most beloved by *valets de place*, before he can be considered an authority by sensible stayers-at-home. It will often be better if the judges will decide by lot—as judges have been known to—among the designs laid before them. There will then be a reasonable chance that they accept the best design, which chance dwindles indefinitely when most committees of selection attempt to select.

It will be well, therefore, if the people will give some thought to this matter during the months that are to come, that they may learn to bring some wisdom of choice and some appreciation of beauty to their chosen task of grateful remembrance, and that the nation may give its best art and its most poetical feeling, as well as its material abundance, to honor its noble dead. We proceed to offer to our readers some suggestions concerning parts of the general subject.

Private tombstones are not included in the class of monuments we are considering. But there is one simple and not necessarily expensive kind of monument which is often used for a private tombstone, and which will answer as well for many other occasions, namely, the obelisk. The word means any object of the well known shape, square in plan, higher than thick, gradually diminishing in size from the base upward, until the gradual taper suddenly ends at a sharp edge, and a square pyramid with much inclined sides terminates the whole. The form is wrongly used in such cases as Bunker Hill Monument, because so large and expensive a building can be much more effective and beautiful in another form; the famous monument named has the one merit only of being likely to endure a long time. It is wrongly used in such cases as the monument at Munich to the Bavarians who fell in Napoleon's Russian campaign, because bronze cannot be more foolishly used than by being cast into flat plates, and so built up into a hollow square tower, and the cannon which were melted to make this monument would have been better employed if they had been piled in pairs like a child's corn-cob house. The obelisk should always be a monolith, a single block of granite; and in that case it is not a contemptible ambition to get your obelisk as large as possible, and pay largely for quarrying, transporting, and setting up a great stone. It would not be a work of art, but it would be a labor of love and a worthy work for a city, to try to get out of American quarries a rival of the Egyptian Obelisk at Paris, red syenite, seventy feet high, and half a million pounds in weight; or the equal of the yet vaster one at Rome; or one such as a czar might have had, according to the story, a hundred feet high, had not his workmen obeyed orders too literally. But the purpose of an obelisk is not all fulfilled when it is

smoothed and set up. The Egyptian idea of this monument was the idea of an excellent place for inscriptions. They covered their obelisks with their picture-writing, from base to summit. Not as the Worth Monument in New York carries the names of battles, cut in raised letters, at great expense; not as the same ugly structure carries its bas-reliefs, and "trophies of arms," in cast bronze; but simply cut into the smooth face of the granite, these inscriptions can be seen from a far, and will remain for ever. The obelisk shares with the pyramid the honor of being an emblem of eternity. The granite monolith is indestructible by time, and nearly so by the hand of man. Cut, to-day, your inscription, half a volume long, on the four smooth faces of a monolithic obelisk of hard granite, and there is no reason why three thousand years rather than one year should efface the letters.

The obelisk has generally been injured in effectiveness as a monument by the addition to its simplicity of other members, making it part of a composition. The simplest and lowest base is the best. And any attempt at union between this and other architectural forms is sure to fail, as in the noted instance of that most inappropriate and offensive design for the great monument to Washington at our national capital; a circular temple, over a hundred feet high, surrounding the base of an obelisk-shaped tower rising four hundred feet above the temple's roof. A very recently built monument, that at Lowell, in memory of Ladd and Whitney, the soldiers of the Massachusetts Sixth who fell at Baltimore on the 19th of April, 1861, is a similar instance of unsuccessful combination of parts. The singular infelicity of the idea of erecting what seem to be four sarcophagi, two of them—the longer two—bearing the names of the two soldiers, and the other two bearing inscriptions in their honor, is equalled by the want of harmony in the design. These four seeming tombs project from the four sides of the base of an obelisk, forming a cross of two longer and two shorter arms. The central tower itself is made up of three plinths or bases, one upon another, the obelisk crowning the highest; the entire height, of which the obelisk itself is about half, reaching twenty-seven feet and six inches. There can be no doubt that a very noble monolith could have been brought to Lowell and erected, with two inscriptions cut upon two opposite sides, for the money that has been spent on this feeble design. And there can be no doubt that the plain obelisk would have been as good a monument as this is in every way unsatisfactory.

Almost all forms of monument that have been sanctioned by the use of ages, and are in themselves excellent, are more or less associated with sculpture. And memorial sculpture is, of course, generally portraiture. It will be found that most of those monumental forms which are the best and the most universally loved, were originally intended for the reception, protection, and exhibition of portrait statuary; such, for instance, is the monument in Trinity Church-yard, New York, in memory of those who died in British prison-ships during the Revolutionary War. It is a canopy of four Gothic arches, raised upon a high base, and surmounted by a tall spire. It is pleasing in outline and in detail, but the open canopy is blank and empty, nothing being seen through its arches but the sky beyond. The original type of this form of monument is found in those canopied tombs of the Gothic time, so numerous once in northern churches, still so numerous in Italy both in churches and in the open air. And, looking back to these, the models—models, also, of all artistic excellence—we find the canopy put to use, covering nearly always that modification of the ancient sarcophagus known as the altar tomb. These tombs vary in style and character with the different ages of the art, but the typical form is a sarcophagus two or three feet high, long enough to receive a life-sized effigy, and wide enough for one such effigy or for two. Upon the slab forming the cover was laid the figure of the dead, as if asleep, the head upon a round pillow, the feet together, and often resting upon a lion or hound, or else crossed one over the other, the hands brought together as in prayer. These effigies were sometimes carved in marble or stone, sometimes cast in bronze. The sides of the tomb were decorated with heraldic devices or with figure sculpture representing incidents in the life of the deceased, or, more simply, with little arcades or with tracery. This representation of the figure as in placid and motionless sleep is perfectly appropriate and right. It has been felt by the best sculptors of our own time to be the most fitting form for memorial statues, and, with the revival of mediæval architecture in Europe, the sarcophagus and effigy have been restored to use. It is hard for modern sculptors to retain the composed stillness of the early statues; the figure must be less stiff to suit modern notions of gracefulness, and much of the pathos and dignity of the old work is lost when the change is made. Baron Marochetti's statue of the Princess Elizabeth, daughter of Charles I., on the tomb erected to her memory by Queen Victoria, is one of the loveliest portrait statues of modern times; but, lovely as it is, it is open to the objection that it has too much action for the

effigy on a tomb. In some modern tombs in Germany, the carefully modelled statues are made ridiculous because couched upon an elaborate mattress and pillow, and because posed in different attitudes of uneasy sleep.

Many tombs remain to us from the best times of art without the life-sized effigy on the top, but covered with a heavy stone, figured only with a cross and sacred monogram, but having the sides panelled, and each panel filled with sculpture in relief. This plan has also been followed in modern times, in cases where the portrait statue was not to be had, as in the case of soldiers who have died away from home, leaving no sufficient material from which a portrait could be made. But, as we have said above, memorial sculpture will generally be portraiture. No other casting or carving can be so fitting as a likeness of the dead whom we wish to remember and honor.

The tombs of the Scala family at Verona, deservedly celebrated as the most perfect monuments known to us, have the sarcophagus and effigy, as was customary at the time, but also the statue of the dead chief as in life. The figure on the stone coffin is clothed in the long gown of peace, and wears a simple fillet around the head. The sides of the sarcophagus are carved with incidents in the life of the dead man. A noble four-arched canopy, resting on slender shafts, is raised above it, and the arches support a square, steep roof or spire, which is truncated, and bears upon the flat top a small equestrian statue of the chief in his armor of battle. These tombs, or the best two, those of Can Grande and Can Mastino della Scala, are as perfect in design and execution of details as in general feeling, and are models of excellence in monumental work.

It should be observed, though, that these monuments, consisting of the sarcophagus and recumbent figure, are designed for tombs proper—designed, that is, to be placed over or to contain the body itself. They are not suitable for memorials, merely, to be erected in memory of one who lies elsewhere. There is a certain difficulty in fitting any monumental building, if of the nature of a tomb, to this purpose. No structure yet proposed is as suitable as a life-sized portrait statue, erect or in sitting posture. The difficulty is, of course, to get the statue. The cost may not be an objection. Money can be raised to pay for the noblest figure, in bronze or marble, of McPherson, or Wadsworth, or Stevens, but who is the artist that is to carve it? There are one or two sculptors in the country who have approved ability, and they should be kept busy for the five years to come modelling nothing but portraits, that we may rightly remember our gallant dead. That they should be left to waste their time on fancies and "ideals" proves a radical deficiency somewhere in the glorious laws of supply and demand.

The need of statues of eminent soldiers suggests inevitably the appropriateness to this need of equestrian statues. And in connection with this theme, as the bronze horsemen at Rome, at Venice, and at Padua occur to the mind, the need of some knowledge on the part of our people of what other people have done to honor their illustrious dead becomes evident. Cannot something be done to reproduce by a carefully made cast—as was done for the Sydenham Crystal Palace Company—the great statues of Colleon and Gattamelata? When shall we learn that the way to teach people art is to show it to them? One great work of art is worth a thousand lectures on art. If the lectures also are good, they will be better when the work of art is present to enforce their doctrine.

If the newspapers speak truly, some of the great colleges propose to build memorials to their graduates who have fallen in the war for the national life. It seems that one of these great colleges has put head and heart to the consideration of the matter, for the rational and worthy conclusion is arrived at to build a hall for her living alumni in honor of the dead. A good building thus serving each present generation, and full of memories of a past generation of heroes; greeting every graduate who enters to share in literary or social festivity with welcome from a noble past; holding up, within and without, the names, to honor, of good men and true, who have gone before—such a building would certainly be better than any huge pile erected to memory only. But it must be a good building. It must be a noble building. Every memorial must have these two characteristics, or it is worthless; it must be rich and ornamental, and even profusely decorated; and it must be built to last for ever. A plain building, well fitted to its purpose, and intelligently designed, such as would make a good alumni hall, would not serve for a memorial. There must be the evidences of lavish expense of money, all well spent indeed, but also *freely* spent, of beauty sought for itself, and ornament loved for its own sake, and used to dignify the building. Then durability—of course no public monument is to be allowed to rival those wooden head-boards which are still set up in German village grave-yards—the Harvard memorial should stand as firmly as Bunker Hill Monument itself.

This Friday morning, as we conclude, the *Times'* correspondent sends us his account of the action of Yale College in the matter: and it seems that a

sort of sub-chapel to the proposed new University Chapel of Yale is the form proposed. This plan is so far good that it gives a good chance to set private memorials—tombs, tablets, memorial windows, and pavement slabs—where they can be well seen. It would seem, however, that this purpose is as well suited in an independent building, and that an independent building would be a better monument to the soldiers, one and all.

In another case, a *campanile* has been proposed, a tall tower within which a gradual stairway or inclined plane should ascend continually from base to summit—those who have ascended the great bell tower of St. Mark, in Venice Square, will remember the slow ascent to the belfry chamber—the walls of the stairway to be incrustated with the tablets in memory of the dead. And other forms of building have been and will be proposed. We return to our first request, and ask the American people to think a little of all these things, and see to it that their willingly-given money shall be well spent. No afterthought will avail. We must all give our minds and hearts to it now, or we shall only perpetuate our carelessness with our sorrow, and compel pity for our ignorance and narrowness of mind when we seek to inspire admiration for the gallant deeds of our dead servants.

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N.B.—Particular attention is requested to the advantages afforded by the payment of the premiums, on both LIFE and ENDOWMENT assurance policies, in TEN ANNUAL INSTALLMENTS. The rates of such premiums charged by this Company are lower, while the dividends are greater, than in any other life company in the United States; and the Company will, on the surrender of such policy, issue a paid-up policy for an equitable sum, which they will guarantee SHALL EXCEED the proportionate amount.

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" 5	5,000
" 6	6,000
" 7	7,000
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" 9	9,000

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The Dividends are as large as upon any other form of policy issued by this Company, and may be applied, as on other policies, as follows:

1. As CASH in part payment of annual premiums commencing at end of first year.
2. To increase the amount of the annuity.
3. Accumulated dividends may, at any time, be used to cancel the premium for any one year, or series of years, until exhausted.

The premium for any one year, on any form of policy in this Company, may be thus paid by relinquishing the CORRESPONDING VALUE ONLY of additions.

## POLICY MAY BE MADE NON-FORFEITABLE.

Should the insurer desire, at any time, to discontinue the payment of annual premiums, he has the option of receiving either its equitable cash value or a paid-up policy for an annuity, in proportion to the amount he has paid to the Company.

Rates of premiums for all combinations of ages, or any other information desired, may be obtained on application at the office of the Company, 144 Broadway, New York, or to any of the authorized agents.

## DIVIDENDS ANNUALLY.

DIVIDENDS, OR DISTRIBUTIONS OF SURPLUS PREMIUMS, will hereafter be made ANNUALLY, the next being February 1, 1866.

Policy-holders may use their dividends as CASH in PAYMENT OF THE PREMIUMS for any current year, or to augment their insurance, as heretofore.

Dividends may be thus applied IMMEDIATELY; WITHOUT ANY DELAY FOR THE REDEMPTION OF SCRIP, as in some other companies.

When premiums are paid in ten (or other) annual instalments, whether upon Life or Endowment Policies, the Dividends will be based, during the term, upon the amounts actually paid. After the payments shall have ceased, and until the Policy becomes a claim, the Dividends will continue as upon other paid-up Policies. The Dividends under the present system may be used, during the ten years, as cash payment of the premium, and afterwards as an absolute cash income, or they may augment the amount insured as heretofore.

The ASSETS of the Company are invested exclusively on Bond and Mortgage on Real Estate in the City and State of New York, worth in each case at least DOUBLE the amount loaned, in United States Stocks and Stocks of the State of New York: the solidity and security of this disposition of the Company's funds will be conceded.

N. B.—The Company will issue policies on a SINGLE LIFE to the extent of \$30,000, but only in cases where the physical condition and family history of the applicant are entirely unexceptionable.

Applications by mail, or otherwise, promptly attended to at the office of the subscriber,

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GENERAL AGENT FOR NEW YORK AND VICINITY.

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Cash Capital,	\$1,000,000
Surplus, over	400,000

This Company insures at customary rates of premium against ALL MARINE AND INLAND NAVIGATION RISKS ON CARGO or FREIGHT; also, against LOSS or DAMAGE by FIRE.

IF PREMIUMS ARE PAID IN GOLD, LOSSES WILL BE PAID IN GOLD.

The Assured receive 75 per cent. of the net profits without incurring any liability, or in lieu thereof, at their option, a liberal discount upon the premium. All losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

SCRIP DIVIDEND, declared Jan. 10, 1865, FIFTY per cent.

JAMES LORIMER GRAHAM, President.  
ROBERT M. C. GRAHAM, Vice-President.  
EDWARD A. STANSBURY, 2d Vice-President.  
JOHN C. GOODRIDGE, Secretary.

## FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE

ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.

## MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS	\$414,720 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	\$134,672 00
Temporary Loans	92,630 00
Real Estate	10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00
Government Sec., value	144,514 00
Cash on hand	18,042 34
Interest due	3,085 58
Premiums due	6,785 25
PRESENT LIABILITIES	\$15,995 92
NET SURPLUS	198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against

DISASTER BY FIRE

At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the

PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY.

pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby

(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)  
of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed

FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,

the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue. The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.

H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

ASHER TAYLOR, President.

## FINANCIAL REVIEW.

SATURDAY A.M.

BUSINESS through the week has again been active in the line of foreign importation. We have had quite a fleet of steamers from Europe laden with dry goods, and the usual number of arrivals from the Indies with sugars, coffee, teas, etc. Trade in the domestic commission line is also fair, while in domestic produce, near the close of the week, prices were rather in advance of the limits on recent orders from abroad for export. The whole export movement of the week, exclusive of specie, which is light, and of the U. S. 5-20 bonds, which go out on a liberal scale, amounts to \$2,950,000. The arrivals of cotton from the South are over 20,000 bales, or 5,000 bales in excess of last week and the week before. But of these receipts, we find that scarcely one-tenth is taken up for export, the remainder being subject to local speculation and the regular demand from the New England manufacturers. The stock on hand is steadily accumulating, and we have reason to believe that in another week or two the export will be materially increased. The accounts from the States recently in rebellion in reference to the old stock of cotton in the country continue to perplex the trade, because of the wide differences of opinion on the subject in the letters from New Orleans, Georgia, Alabama, etc.

Within a day or two past the harvest advices from the West are not so favorable, and this change has partially enhanced speculation on the Corn Exchange. It appears that the recent heavy rains caused some trouble to the gathering in of the wheat crop, and material damage in some sections of the West to the oat harvest. These reports are of a private rather than press authority, and may be exaggerated for speculative purposes. The telegrams to the Associated Press represent the mischief as limited. We

shall soon have the official reports on the subject through the Agricultural Bureau at Washington.

There is a rise—or rather recovery—in United States 5-20s of 2 per cent. since last Saturday, the quotation returning to 105½ to 106 per cent. The orders to buy from abroad have been coming in freely by every steamer through the week, and at such limits as to price as enabled the parties here to whom they were directed to fill them at once. They have been favored by the higher ruling of gold, from 143 up to 146 per cent. This advance is of a speculative character. The party who are reputed to have been very large buyers of late held the market steady until the rumors of apprehended trouble on the Rio Grande enabled them to demonstrate for a rise. The highest sales were at 146½ Thursday night, from which the price receded to 145 per cent. on Friday.

Exchange on London has fallen to 108½ to 108¾ per cent. for gold, which, of course, shuts out all export demand for gold. The Custom House demand to pay duties has again been very large through the week, but this has been qualified by some sales of gold out of the large interest surplus in the Treasury office. The July interest, \$9,750,000 in amount, is payable in gold, being 3 per cent. on the 6 per cent. gold-bearing loan of 1881, and 2½ to 3 per cent. on the old funded loans of the United States. The payment has been made this month without diminishing the heavy gold balances with which the Treasury entered upon the new fiscal year. The customs for July at New York will equal this sum, leaving \$3,500,000 at the out-ports to be added to the previous gold balances, if not turned into currency to help pay the 15th August interest, amounting to \$10,950,000, or 3.65 per cent. for 6 months on the first series, \$300,000,000, of the 7.30 loan. The September interest, \$4,319,000, is payable in gold, being 2½ per cent. on the 10-40 years' stock. No stated interest falls due in October, while in November the gold interest, \$18,167,085 in amount, comes in, being three per cent. on the 5-20 stocks.

The money market worked easy in the early part of the week, but is now up to 6 to 7 per cent. on a demand to carry up the gold and railway speculation. The amount of gold thus held is on the increase, as there is no export demand, and the Treasury is supposed to be selling its current receipts from customs. The leading railways have suddenly gone up 3 to 5 per cent., and even 10 to 15 per cent. in one or two instances. The common stock of the Erie Company led off in this movement, and from 82½ per cent. nearly touched par (99½) on Thursday. The company have declared their half-yearly dividend of 4 per cent., to be paid on the 21st August.

## UNITED STATES SECURITIES.

As remarked above, the European demand for 5-20s, original issue, has been large—estimated at three millions for the week. They have advanced from 104 to 104½ to 106 to 106½ per cent.; the new issues from 104 to 104½ to 104½ per cent.; the 6 per cents. of 1881 from 106½ to 107½ to 107½; the 10-40s, 96½ to 97½.

The 7.30 per cent. loans, first and second series, are at par and interest. The third series has been closed out, \$230,000,000 in amount, through the agency of Mr. Jay Cooke, though a considerable part of the money is still undrawn in the various National Banks that subscribed to the loan for their local dealers.

Treasury certificates of indebtedness, twelve months to run, carrying 6 per cent. interest, are selling at 97½ per cent. for the 1865, and 99½ for the 1864 issues.

## STATE SECURITIES.

We have nothing new to report under this head. A few sales are making of the Border State bonds, such as Virginias, Missouris, and Tennessees.

## RAILWAY SECURITIES.

The large advance in Erie common stock has also advanced the fourth mortgage bonds of the Company, which are convertible at the will of the holder into common stock until 1868. They are now selling at 99 to 100. Erie shares have advanced from 82½ to 98; New York Central from 94½ to 95½; Reading from 103 to 109, and then returned to 107; Hudson, 108 to 115½, returning to 113½; Michigan Central, 108 to 109; Michigan Southern, 65½ to 69½, returning to 67½; Pittsburg, 68 to 75, returning to 72½; North-West, 27½ to 28; North-West, preferred, 61½ to 64½, and back to 62½; Fort Wayne, 98 to 98½; Rock Island, 107½ to 108½. Market firm this morning.

## MISCELLANEOUS SHARES.

Atlantic Mail has declined from 184 to 156½; Canton 40 to 39½; Mari-posa advanced from 12½ to 13½; Cumberland from 42 to 42½; Brunswick fell off to \$10½.

## GOLD AND EXCHANGE.

Gold is about 145½. Bills on London for this day's steamer close very weak, with sales as low as 108½ to 108¾ per cent.

## The Nation:

A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, or body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features; and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

A special correspondent, who has been selected for his work with care, has started on a journey through the South. His letters will appear hereafter every week, and he is charged with the duty of simply reporting what he sees and hears, leaving the public as far as possible to draw its own inferences.

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